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***** + LAWRENCE R. KLEIN, Editor + *****

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PART 1.—LABOR IN THE SOUTH

EDITOR'S NOTE.—With this issue the *Monthly Labor Review* presents the second in a series of specialized numbers. The first appeared in July and dealt with some of the reconversion problems and programs of New England. Subsequent treatments of special topics or of particular economic-geographic areas will appear on a continuing basis at intervals of 3 or 4 months. This series has been established for the convenience of the reader. Well-integrated coverage of a single subject within a wide field of interest is essential to a well-rounded coverage of the field itself. Each of such special issues will cover the same type of subject matter that the *Review* has always covered, but articles will be scheduled so that the reader may obtain a broad view of a particular subject in one issue.

This issue deals with labor in the South. The articles comprising the major portion of it represent, in large part, a byproduct of work undertaken by the Department of Labor in the fall of 1945 in connection with the research program sponsored by the House Agricultural Subcommittee on a Postwar Cotton Program. In June 1946 an extensive compilation of materials on the southern labor force, wages, employment, and related matters was submitted to the research group of the committee concerned especially with the possibilities for industrial and other non-farm developments in the South. This compilation was directed by Theodore W. Reedy of the Bureau's Labor Economics Staff. The planning and editing of the series of articles constituting Part 1 of this issue were undertaken by H. M. Douty, Chief of the Bureau's Labor Economics Staff. Part 1 will be reprinted as a bulletin.

—L. R. K.

Introduction

SEVEN articles are presented in this issue of the *Monthly Labor Review* on various aspects of labor in the South. Considered collectively, these articles should contribute materially to our knowledge of southern labor conditions. They do not constitute, however, an exhaustive analysis of the position of labor in the region. This is true even within the specific fields of inquiry. For example, it is quite impossible fully to explore trade-union development or wage differentials within the confines of single articles. Many subjects of interest to labor, such as southern experience with unemployment compensation, are not touched upon at all.

The definition of "South" employed in the following articles is not entirely uniform. Except where a different coverage is specifically indicated, however, the term relates to 13 States. Nine of these States—Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Kentucky, Tennessee, Alabama, and Mississippi—are generally taken to comprise the Southeast; the remaining four—Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas—are in the Southwest. This tremendous region contains 843,812 square miles of territory; its population in July 1945 was estimated at 37,624,000, excluding armed forces overseas but including armed forces distributed by State of station. Civilian population was estimated at 35,416,000.

The South as thus defined is not a homogeneous area. There is great and rich diversity in the geography, economy, and culture of the region. It is necessary to emphasize this point because the articles that follow deal largely, although by no means wholly, in aggregates and averages. This type of social arithmetic is an indispensable tool for many analytical and policy-making purposes, but by its very nature it conceals wide variations in social existence and experience.

If there is diversity in the South, there is also a measure of unity. This unity is partly historical and partly a reflection of the fact that from the colonial period to the present the South has remained predominantly agrarian. To agriculture must be added the economic activities that depend directly upon the forest resources of the region and upon the wealth, including petroleum, under the earth. The South has been primarily an exporter of raw and semifinished products; its industrial development began relatively late and under severe initial handicaps. The ante bellum South, for various reasons, did not encourage the growth of industrial enterprise; and even as late as 1930 a group of southern intellectuals could argue (in *I'll Take My Stand*) that the social cost of industrialism outweighed its benefits.

Industrialization, however, has increased significantly. In 1880, less than 8 percent of the wage earners employed in manufacturing in the United States were in the 13 Southern States. By 1939 this percentage had risen to 17.2. Moreover, while the absolute level of factory employment declined sharply in the country as a whole between 1929 and 1939, there was a small increase in the level of manufacturing employment in the southern region. An average of 1,362,027 wage earners were employed in manufacturing in the South in 1939. Manufacturing employment in the South increased sharply during the war years. A detailed article on employment in manufacturing in the South during the war years and the first year of peace will appear in a forthcoming issue of the *Monthly Labor Review*.

The manufacturing base in the South has been comparatively narrow, resting largely upon the textile industries (principally cotton

textiles and hosiery), lumber, furniture, and tobacco, with petroleum refining in the Southwest. Other industries (iron and steel, machinery, apparel, and a host of others) have been rather thinly represented. However, the war apparently has strengthened a tendency for the industrial structure of the South to broaden, partly as a result of the rise of essentially new industries and partly from decentralizing tendencies elsewhere. Texas is a conspicuous example, and the Southeast is vibrant with new industrial undertakings.

The articles in the present issue deal with some of the basic factors affecting labor in the South. The analysis of key population and labor force characteristics is essential to any broad understanding of the position of labor in the region. The articles on income trends and levels and on wage differentials provide, in conjunction with the article on living costs, insight into the relative economic position of the southern industrial worker and of other segments of the southern population. They also provide a basic explanation for the great migratory movements discussed in the article on population and labor supply.

Two articles relate to efforts by workers to improve their economic well-being through organization. The first of these articles traces the development of the trade-union movement in the South; the second deals with the comparatively small consumers' cooperative movement. Finally, an article is devoted to legislation enacted by the Southern States for the protection of labor or relating to labor organizations and collective bargaining.

I—Labor Supply in the South¹

THE economic and social well-being of the South depends both upon its human resources and upon the quantity and quality of its physical resources. An examination of migration, population, and labor-force characteristics, which the war has affected but not fundamentally altered, is basic to any analysis of the economic position of labor in the South and of the outlook for economic development in the region

Migration

Perhaps the most striking aspect of the labor-supply situation in the South is that the region not only provides labor for its own factories and farms, but it also contributes substantially to the labor supply of other regions of the Nation. The natural rate of population increase is considerably greater in the South than in the remainder of the country, owing to the higher fertility in the predominantly rural South than in the North and West. The pressure of population on economic opportunities in the South has been such, however, that large outward migration has taken place. During the 1920-30 decade, the number of migrants leaving the South exceeded the number entering by an average of 130,000 a year.² During the depression of the 1930's, when job opportunities in northern and western cities were at low levels, the net out-migration continued but reached only 100,000 a year. With the growth of the defense program, and then of the war production program, the annual rate stepped up to the unprecedented figure of 300,000.

Perhaps the most important single factor in increasing the rate of out-migration was the growth of job opportunities in the North and West: in the 1940-43 period more than 80 percent of the contracts for war products were let in these regions, in the cities where industry has long been concentrated. The thousands of jobs which these contracts opened up had to be filled in part by drawing workers from the Southern States. Outward migration from the South continued, in spite of the letting of contracts and the building up of war facilities within the region.

Except for the fact that movements were accelerated and were over longer distances, wartime migration followed the same general pattern that prevailed in peacetime years (table 1). If the 48 States and the District of Columbia are ranked according to percentage of net migration in 1935-40 and 1940-45, the 13 Southern States are found

¹ Prepared by Sophia C. Mendelsohn and Lester M. Pearlman of the Bureau's Occupational Outlook Division.

² Except where noted, the term "South" as used in this article refers to the 13 States of Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, and Virginia.

at approximately the same position for the later period as for the earlier. Thus, if we call the State with the greatest net in-migration number 1 and the State with the greatest net out-migration number 49, Arkansas is 44th on the list in 1935-40 and 45th in 1940-45. Most of the 13 States either maintained the same place on the list or dropped somewhat lower on the list because of net out-migration. Only 3 of the Southern States—Alabama, Tennessee, and Texas—moved up on the list in the direction of relatively less out-migration. The 13-State area—and every State in it, except only Florida and Virginia—continued to lose population to other areas.

TABLE 1.—*Net Interstate Migration in the United States, 1935-40 and 1940-45, by Region and State*¹

Region and State	Net migration (in thousands)			
	1940-45 ²	1935-40		
		Total	Total	Male
North.....	-641	-615	-338	-277
West.....	1,915	887	460	427
South.....	-1,626	-338	-157	-181
Virginia.....	181	44	31	13
North Carolina.....	-307	-15	-6	-9
South Carolina.....	-162	-16	-5	-11
Georgia.....	-149	-33	-12	-21
Florida.....	219	147	73	74
Kentucky.....	-308	-55	-26	-29
Tennessee.....	-79	-39	-22	-17
Alabama.....	-134	-73	-37	-36
Mississippi.....	-230	-28	-13	-15
Arkansas.....	-265	-75	-36	-39
Louisiana.....	-19	9	5	4
Oklahoma.....	-356	-184	-97	-87
Texas.....	-17	-20	-12	-8

¹ Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census.

² Civilian migration only.

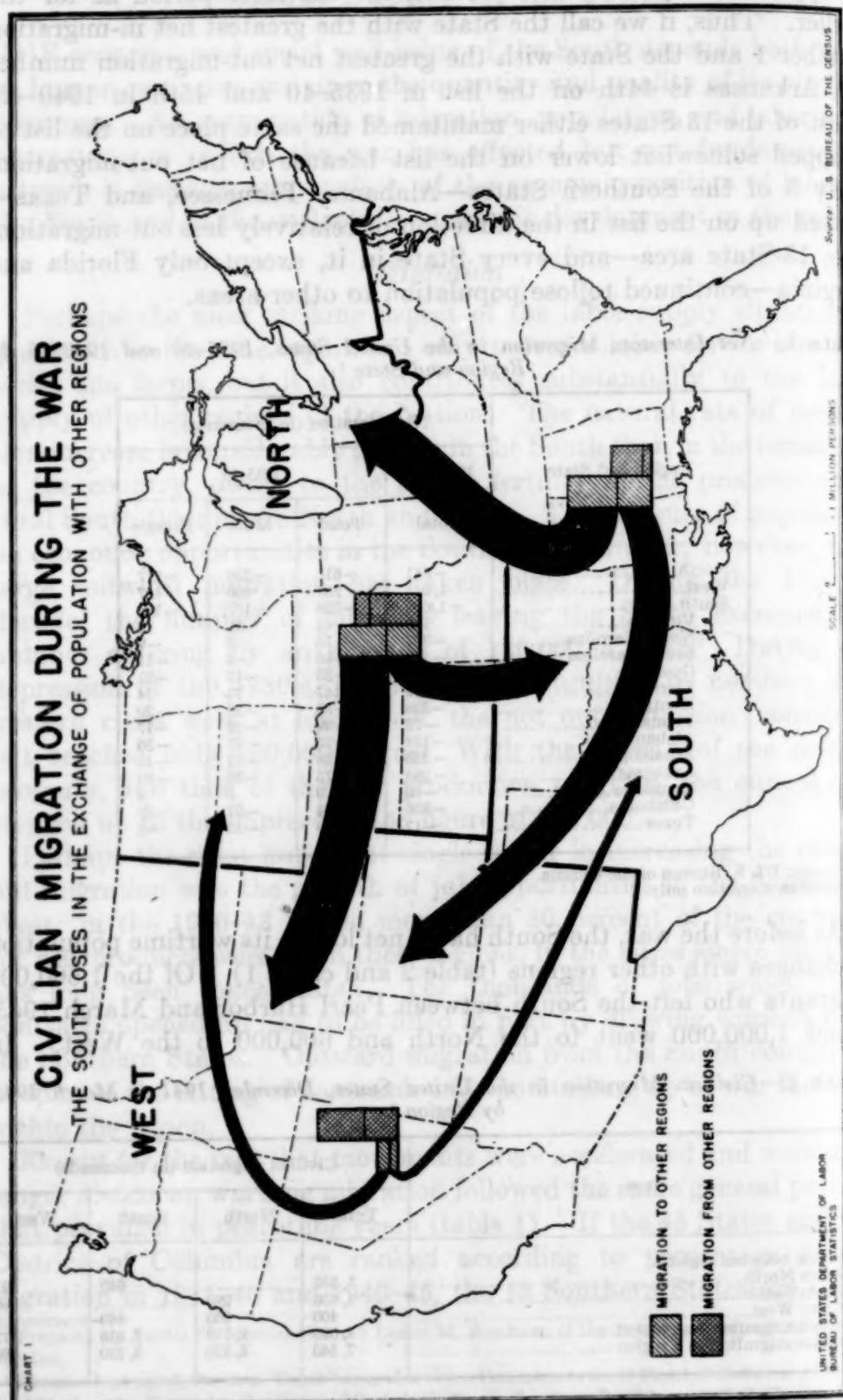
As before the war, the South had a net loss in its wartime population exchanges with other regions (table 2 and chart 1). Of the 1,600,000 migrants who left the South between Pearl Harbor and March 1945, about 1,000,000 went to the North and 600,000 to the West.³ In

TABLE 2.—*Civilian Migration in the United States, December 1941 to March 1945, by Region*¹

Item	Civilian migration (in thousands)			
	Total	North	South	West
Migration between regions:				
From North.....	1,550		640	910
From South.....	1,630	980		650
From West.....	400	260	140	
Interstate migration in a region.....	4,000	1,710	1,610	770
Intrastate migration in a region.....	7,540	3,370	3,220	950

¹ Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census.

³ Data for the South include West Virginia, Maryland, Delaware, and the District of Columbia. See Census release P-5, No. 5.



return, however, the South received only 600,000 persons from the North and 100,000 from the West—a net loss of 400,000 to the North and 500,000 to the West.

Internal migration in the South during the war also reached record magnitudes. Gross intrastate migration⁴ in the region amounted to 3,200,000 between December 1941 and March 1945, while movements between States within the region during this period totaled 1,600,000 (table 2). This reflects a movement from farms to cities during the war which is as striking as that from the South to other regions of the country. In fact, migration from the South was in large part a reflection of the shifts from rural to urban areas. For the United States as a whole, the net loss to the farm population through movement of civilians from farms averaged 900,000 per year in the period 1941 to 1945, compared with only 375,000 during the depression decade of the thirties and 630,000 in the twenties.⁵ Evidence of the fact that migrants from the rural South not only went to cities in the North and West but also to southern cities is found in the large population gains registered in industrial areas such as Mobile and Houston.⁶

There is one particular implication in interregional migration to which attention should be called. The outward migration has provided other areas with workers who have been carried through the years of childhood, have been educated, and have in many cases received some work experience in the South (table 3 and chart 2.) After passing their early years in the South—unproductive ones in terms of their immediate contribution to the output of the region—they then move to other areas which can reap the fruit of this nurture and training. Data for the 1935-40 period indicate that of those who left the South in that period, about three-eighths in the 25-34 age group had a high-school education or better, and six-sevenths had an eighth-grade education or better. As has been indicated, this give and take be-

TABLE 3.—*Age Distribution of Out-Migrants from the South, 1935-40, by Sex*¹

Age group	Percentage distribution		
	Total	Male	Female
Total, 5 years of age and over	100.0	100.0	100.0
5-13 years of age	16.8	16.4	17.2
14-24 years of age	27.7	26.3	29.2
25-34 years of age	26.8	26.9	26.6
35-44 years of age	14.4	15.4	13.4
45-54 years of age	7.9	8.6	7.1
55 years of age and over	6.4	6.4	6.5

¹ Source: Based on the Sixteenth Census of Population, 1940, Internal Migration, Age of Migrants.

⁴ Intrastate migration includes migrants whose place of residence was in a different county but in the same State as the place of residence in December 1941.

⁵ See Census release P-S, No. 6.

⁶ See Census release P-44, No. 3.

tween areas works both ways, with migrants and capital from other areas entering the South, but, on balance, the South has been making a contribution to the other richer parts of the country.

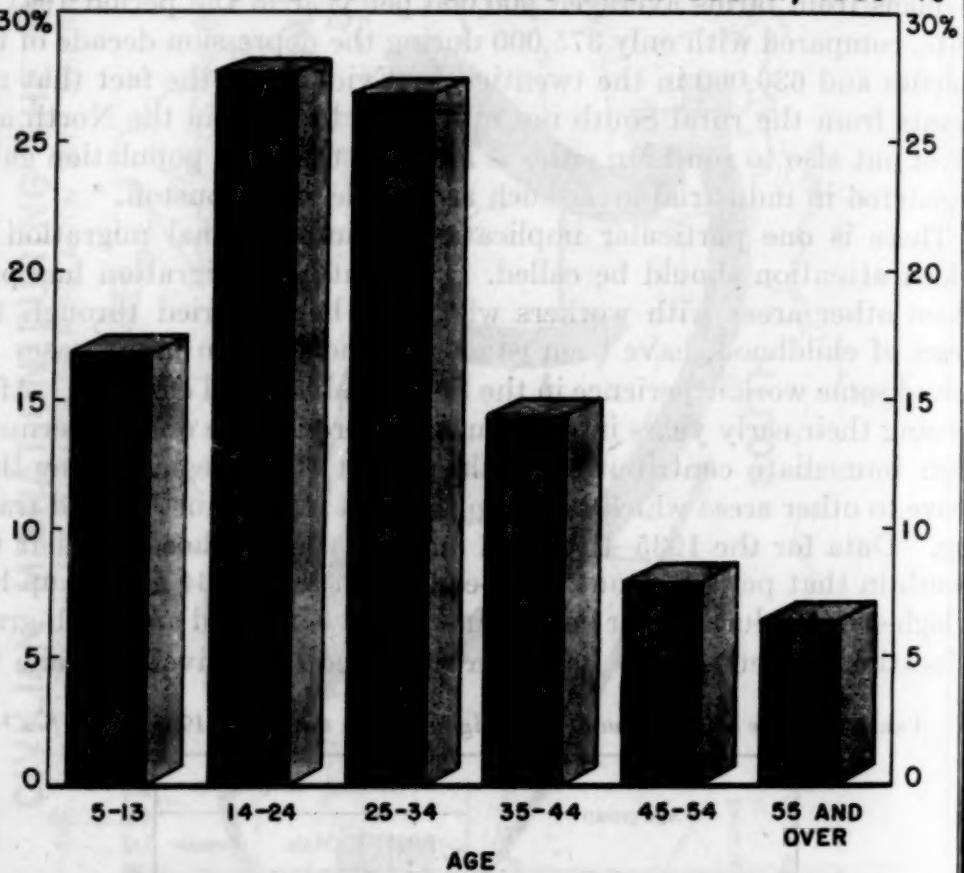
A smaller percentage of Negroes left the South for other regions than was the case among whites, but there were so few colored persons entering the South from other regions that the South lost propor-

CHART 2

AGE OF OUT-MIGRANTS

MOST PEOPLE WHO LEAVE THE SOUTH ARE IN THE YOUNG, PRODUCTIVE AGE GROUPS

PERCENT OF TOTAL OUT-MIGRANTS FROM SOUTH, 1935-40



UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

SOURCE: BUREAU OF CENSUS

tionately more Negroes than whites in the give and take of population between 1935 and 1940. Thus, Negroes accounted for one-third of the *net* out-migration from the South even though they made up one-fourth of the total southern population. Information on the extent of migration of nonwhites during the war is limited. Some evidence of migration of Negroes to the West, however, is found in the fact that

the Negro population in five congested production areas on the West Coast more than doubled between 1940 and 1944.⁷

POSTWAR PROSPECTS FOR MIGRATION

What are the likely postwar trends with respect to migration of the South's population and labor supply? The answer to this question must necessarily be a conditional one. Migration will be heavily cut down if any large-scale industrialization program, drawing on the new war-built plants and on the skills of the wartime force of semi-skilled and skilled factory workers, should develop vigorously in the South. But even under this assumption it is likely that migration from the South will be larger than migration to the South. There has been a long-term stability in the geographic distribution of employment opportunities which even the war did not fundamentally alter. The fast-growing population in the South, confronted with relatively low job opportunities and security, will continue to provide workers not only for its own industries but for those in other areas. Under conditions of fairly high employment, for example, job opportunities in New England, in the East North Central areas, and in the Pacific region are likely to be more favorable than in the South, so that migration from the South to these areas is bound to occur. Under conditions of full employment, migration is likely to be even more pronounced, for migration is a necessary step to full employment, given the differences in birth rates and industrialization which now exist and will probably continue to exist between different regions in our country. Only if severe depression were to set in would there be much likelihood of a reversal in the pattern of prewar and wartime migration.

It is not likely that this generalization will be contradicted by the movement of returning servicemen. Surveys made by the War Department in 1944⁸ indicate that on the basis of their plans at that time, 15 in 100 of the soldiers who came from the South are likely to seek employment in the North or West after the war. This means that these States will be losing the potential services of many able-bodied and trained workers who could contribute effectively to the well-being of the Nation by developing the resources of the South. This trend forcibly suggests how essential is the study of the many plans and factors which relate to the greater industrialization of the South.

Trained and able-bodied labor is just as much a productive asset as a mine, a stand of timber, or 40 acres of fertile farm land. One of the South's major problems is how best to utilize this immensely valuable productive asset.

⁷ U. S. Bureau of the Census, Population, Series CA-3, Nos. 2, 3, 5, 6, and 8.

⁸ See Postwar Migration Plans of Army Enlisted Men, in *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, May 1945.

Population and Labor-Force Characteristics

In 1940, 37 million of the Nation's 132 million people lived in the 13 Southern States. Except for Texas, which accounted for over 6 million persons, and North Carolina, with 3½ million, each of the other 11 States had populations which ranged roughly between 2 and 3 million persons (table 4). The labor force or working population numbered some 14 million and, being drawn from the population 14 years of age and over, was distributed among the States in much the same fashion as the total population (table 5).

TABLE 4.—*Geographical Distribution of the South's Population, 1940, by Color and State*¹

State	Population, 1940 (in thousands)			Percentage distribution		
	Total	White	Nonwhite	Total	White	Nonwhite
South	37,013	27,651	9,362	100.0	100.0	100.0
Virginia	2,678	2,016	662	7.2	7.3	7.1
North Carolina	3,572	2,568	1,004	9.7	9.3	10.7
South Carolina	1,900	1,084	816	5.1	3.9	8.7
Georgia	3,124	2,038	1,086	8.4	7.4	11.6
Florida	1,897	1,382	515	5.1	5.0	5.5
Kentucky	2,845	2,631	214	7.7	9.5	2.3
Tennessee	2,916	2,407	509	7.9	8.7	5.4
Alabama	2,833	1,849	984	7.7	6.7	10.5
Mississippi	2,184	1,106	1,078	5.9	4.0	11.5
Arkansas	1,949	1,466	483	5.3	5.3	5.2
Louisiana	2,364	1,512	852	6.4	5.5	9.1
Oklahoma	2,336	2,104	232	6.3	7.6	2.5
Texas	6,415	5,488	927	17.3	19.8	9.9

¹ Source: Sixteenth Census of Population, 1940.

TABLE 5.—*Geographical Distribution of the South's Labor Force, 1940, by Sex, Color, and State*¹

State	Labor force (in thousands) ²								
	Total			White			Nonwhite		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
South	13,827	10,579	3,248	10,035	8,025	2,010	3,792	2,554	1,238
Virginia	1,031	793	238	764	608	156	267	185	82
North Carolina	1,334	984	350	950	724	226	384	260	124
South Carolina	731	516	215	415	310	105	316	206	110
Georgia	1,226	890	336	773	598	175	453	292	161
Florida	787	560	227	534	403	131	253	157	96
Kentucky	999	820	179	905	757	148	94	63	31
Tennessee	1,072	831	241	848	684	164	224	147	77
Alabama	1,017	776	241	636	520	116	381	256	125
Mississippi	808	612	196	387	314	73	421	298	123
Arkansas	679	563	116	498	425	73	181	138	43
Louisiana	884	674	210	546	440	106	338	234	104
Oklahoma	804	648	156	725	592	133	79	56	23
Texas	2,455	1,912	543	2,054	1,650	404	401	262	139

¹ Source: Sixteenth Census of Population, 1940.

² Consists of persons 14 years of age and over either employed or unemployed.

POPULATION AND LABOR-FORCE GROWTH

Labor-force growth is in large measure a function of population growth. The rise of the American labor force from about 1 million in 1790 to 53½ million in 1940 is essentially an outcome of the increase in the population of working age—from about 2 million to 101 million over the 150-year period. Thus, between 1920 and 1940, population growth caused the southern labor force to expand at a greater rate than that of the North but at a lower rate than that of the West.

Percent increase, 1920-40

Population Labor Force

South	20.2	25.0
North	16.3	20.0
West	35.9	36.7

In the absence of interstate migration, however, the South would have experienced by far the greatest rate of population growth, and, thereby, of labor-force growth. As the following tabulation indicates, the South has consistently been the region of highest fertility in the Nation:

Net reproduction rate¹

1905-10 1935-40

South	161	118
North	122	87
West	117	94

¹ Net reproduction rate of 100 means that each generation would just replace itself if birth and death rates of a given period were to continue indefinitely, and if there were no net migration.

This greater fertility is largely a reflection of the predominantly rural character of the South and of the fact that the proportion of nonwhite persons in its population is higher than in the North or West (table 6). High fertility is characteristic of rural residents and of nonwhites. More than 65 percent of the people in the South lived in rural areas in 1940; in the other regions of the country, the proportion was less than 40 percent. Similarly, 1 in every 4 persons in the South

TABLE 6.—Regional Distribution of the Population, 1940, by Residence and Color¹

Region	Residence				Color		
	Total	Urban	Rural nonfarm	Rural farm	All classes	White	Nonwhite
Number (in thousands)							
South	37,013	12,873	8,616	15,524	37,013	27,651	9,362
North	76,120	51,005	13,571	11,544	76,120	73,207	2,913
West	13,883	8,128	3,427	2,328	13,883	13,349	534
Percentage distribution							
South	100.0	34.8	23.3	41.9	100.0	74.7	25.3
North	100.0	67.0	17.8	15.2	100.0	96.2	3.8
West	100.0	58.5	24.7	16.8	100.0	96.2	3.8

¹ Source: Sixteenth Census of Population, 1940.

is nonwhite, in contrast to a ratio of less than 1 in 25 for the other regions. It should be noted, however, that even within the same residence and color groups, fertility is higher in the South than in the rest of the country.

As shown earlier, a fast-growing population pressing upon relatively limited economic opportunity has resulted in large-scale migration from the South in periods of depression as well as prosperity. The South will continue to export labor as long as its abundance of labor supply is not matched by opportunities for employment.

POPULATION CHARACTERISTICS AFFECTING LABOR-MARKET PARTICIPATION

The effect of the South's higher fertility can be seen clearly in the fact that its population and labor force are comparatively young. This is the case in spite of heavy out-migration of young and middle-aged persons from the South. The median age of the population of the South in 1940 was 25 years in contrast to 31 years in both the North and West. Approximately 52 percent of the South's labor force was under 35 years of age compared to 46 percent in the North and 44 percent in the West.

In addition, there are significant regional differences with respect to labor-market participation within each age and sex group. Although nearly all able-bodied men aged 25-54 years are in the labor force in every region, the work force of the South has relatively more young boys and older men, as shown in table 7. In the case of the youngsters, this is a reflection of the fact that rural youths can more readily enter the labor force than urban youths and of the related fact that southern youngsters leave school at a relatively early age. Only one-third of the southern adult population in 1940 attended school beyond the eighth grade. This relatively low proportion might be expected because of the South's predominantly rural character and because of its large nonwhite population, but even in each separate residence and color group the educational level in the South is lower than in other regions.

TABLE 7.—*Age Composition of the Male Labor Force, 1940, by Region*¹

Age group	Number (in thousands)			Proportion in the labor force ²		
	South	North	West	South	North	West
All age groups	10,579	23,598	4,379	80.0	78.9	77.5
14-19 years of age	975	1,279	201	42.2	31.1	28.2
20-24 years of age	1,469	2,845	513	88.7	88.2	85.5
25-54 years of age	6,613	15,559	2,937	93.9	94.4	93.4
55-64 years of age	1,030	2,821	542	85.4	83.9	81.2
65 years of age and over	492	1,094	186	48.5	40.0	35.5

¹ Source: Sixteenth Census of Population, 1940.

² Labor force as a percentage of population in each age group.

Unpaid family work on farms draws large numbers of southern youth into the labor force. Nearly one-third of the teen-agers in the South's 1940 labor force were unpaid family workers in contrast to one-eighth in the North and one-tenth in the West.

The main reason that southern men retire from work at a later age than other men is that a greater proportion of them are engaged in farming, which is typically a family enterprise. As a farmer reaches old age his children or hired help take over the heavier burdens while he continues to work around the farm. In industry, on the other hand, a worker is often forced out of the labor market when he reaches an age at which he cannot compete with younger men. Other factors causing men to work to later ages in the South are the generally lower income levels and the absence of social-security coverage in agriculture.

In the South, nearly one woman in four works or seeks work outside the home. This rate of labor-market participation is slightly lower than that in the North and on a par with that in the West.

Residence and family characteristics of southern women serve to reduce the number working outside the home. The fact that relatively more women in the South live in rural areas has acted to lower the proportion in the labor force. Women in rural areas do not participate in the labor force to the same extent as urban women, principally because there is not much opportunity for any work except farming, where women are employed for the most part only during the peak planting and harvesting seasons. Moreover, farm women generally have more household responsibilities and perform many chores of the type which do not occur in nonfarm households. One out of every three women in urban areas in 1940 worked or sought work outside the home, compared with corresponding ratios of one in five for rural-nonfarm districts and one in eight for rural-farm areas.

In addition, the fact that the South has proportionately more married women and more young children per family has a tendency to keep women out of the labor market. Most women do not continue to work outside the home after marriage, and most of those who do continue to work quit after they have children. For example, among women aged 18-34 in 1940, approximately 67 percent of the single women were in the labor force, compared with only 31 percent of the married women without children, and 8 percent of the married women with children under 10 years of age.

Color composition works in the opposite direction since nonwhite women work or seek work (mostly in domestic service) to a greater extent than do white women. Thus, when farm and nonfarm women are compared separately, it is found that the rates of labor-force par-

ticipation for the South are higher than the rates for corresponding groups in other regions.

	<i>Percentage of female population 14 years of age and over in the labor force, 1940, in—</i>		
	<i>South</i>	<i>North</i>	<i>West</i>
All women.....	24.2	26.2	23.8
Urban areas.....	35.1	30.5	28.4
Rural nonfarm areas.....	22.4	20.0	18.1
Rural farm areas.....	13.2	10.7	12.0

Here, then, are the dominant characteristics of the South's labor force: (1) Except for the effect of migration, the South has the greatest potential rate of labor-force growth in the Nation. (2) Non-white workers comprise a relatively large proportion of the South's labor force. (3) There is a predominance of rural workers. (4) The proportion of the labor force concentrated in the younger age groups is greater than for other regions. (5) Southerners leave school earlier to go to work and retire from the labor force at later ages than people in the North and West. (6) In general, the South has relatively fewer women working outside the home than the North, as a result of rural residence and responsibility for the care of larger families. This is true despite the greater labor-market participation of nonwhite women.

II—Income in the South¹

VARIATIONS in income among the States are due to differences in the natural resources, capital equipment, and productive abilities of the different populations. The possession of abundant capital and natural wealth in relation to population usually constitutes a basis for a high level of income and well-being. Where such resources exist, the States can support adequate programs of public education, health, and general welfare. All the people are the beneficiaries of such programs, particularly those in the lower-income groups. On the other hand, the level of income tends to be low where resources are naturally meager or have been depleted, where capital equipment is relatively small, and where the population is not generally skilled in industry. As a result, State revenues are low, and public functions are likely to be limited. In such areas, a change in the balance between population and resources will tend to occur. In the South,² this process has taken primarily the form of out-migration³ and of industrialization through the use of capital accumulated in the region and brought in from the outside.

Human welfare cannot by any means be measured entirely in terms of money income. Estimates of aggregate income payments⁴ and their components, however, can be used roughly to describe the economic status of the population as a whole, and per capita income⁵ to indicate the average status of the individual. Such estimates are available for the individual States, and comparisons can therefore be made between the Southern States and the rest of the country. Comparisons are desirable, as the concept of "income level" is relative.

Differences in income level between the South and the remainder of the country reflect, in part, differences in the character of economic activity. Agriculture, of course, is relatively more important, and manufacturing less important, in the South than elsewhere. Moreover, there are important differences between agriculture as carried

¹ Prepared by Solomon Shapiro of the Bureau's Labor Economics Staff. The State income data used in this article have been published or made available by the National Income Division of the Office of Business Economics of the U. S. Department of Commerce. The cooperation of this Division is gratefully acknowledged.

² The "South" is used to mean the nine Southeastern States: Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Kentucky, Tennessee, Alabama, and Mississippi; and the four Southwestern States, Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas.

³ See the article Labor Supply in the South, page 484 of this issue.

⁴ State income payments represent income received in the various States by individuals, from payers either within or outside the State. These payments include certain "nonproductive" receipts which are included in money income, such as social-security benefits and relief payments. They exclude certain items of income, like business savings, which accrue to, but are not received by, the population. Certain imputed items, such as products consumed on the farm, are also included.

⁵ Per capita income payments are derived by division of total income payments by total population, excluding armed forces and civilians outside the continental United States.

on in the South and in other areas: farms in this region average fewer acres, capital equipment is smaller, and productivity per man is lower. The structure of manufacturing industry (kinds of industries, proportions of various labor skills employed, etc.) differs substantially in the southern and nonsouthern sectors of the economy. These variations in types of economic activity help to explain why the general level of per capita income in the South, even in 1945, was low relative to the national level.

While per capita income in the South is low compared with the average for the country, a definite and encouraging upward trend has, however, been evident in recent years. This trend reflects the changing structure of the southern economy resulting from a decline in the relative importance of agriculture, and as a counterpart, an increase in manufactures. Per capita income in the Southern States rose from 55 percent of the national average in 1929 to 69 percent in 1945. Between these dates income in the aggregate had more than doubled in the South, and the region's share of the country's total income had increased appreciably.

A portion of the gain in relative income position grew out of the war. In meeting its war needs, the Nation found in the Southern States a large pool of manpower and a convenient location for many military installations as well as war manufacturing plants. As a result, income payments to individuals in the South increased at a faster rate than in the other States during the war years. It is difficult to tell at this time to what extent the gains of the war years will be permanent.

This article presents estimates of per capita income, average annual wages, and aggregate income payments and their components in the South and the rest of the country. Changing relationships since 1929, and particularly during the war period, will be indicated.

Per Capita Income

TOTAL POPULATION, INCLUDING MILITARY

The marked differential in incomes between the South and other regions of the country is being reduced. Since 1929 per capita income in the Southern States has steadily drawn nearer to the national average. The per capita income of \$371 in 1929 was only 55 percent of the national average. In 1940, the per capita income of \$340 was 59 percent of this average. In spite of a somewhat greater relative increase in population between 1940 and 1945, per capita income in the Southern States was \$797 in 1945, 69 percent of the national average (table 1).

TABLE 1.—*Per Capita Income Payments¹ and Percent of National Per Capita Income United States and by Region, 1929–45²*

Region	1929	1933	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945
Per capita income payments									
United States.....	\$680	\$368	\$539	\$575	\$693	\$862	\$1,040	\$1,133	\$1,150
Southern States.....	371	210	323	340	421	555	693	778	797
Southeastern States.....	339	198	303	324	407	535	660	740	767
Virginia.....	422	206	402	450	565	738	833	888	903
North Carolina.....	309	205	308	316	397	521	610	702	732
South Carolina.....	252	167	261	286	354	473	575	652	663
Georgia.....	329	200	290	315	389	507	654	730	745
Florida.....	484	272	442	471	531	684	879	950	996
Kentucky.....	371	199	297	308	369	474	613	701	735
Tennessee.....	349	190	295	317	413	513	659	768	813
Alabama.....	305	154	242	268	359	482	602	677	700
Mississippi.....	273	123	201	202	283	396	483	541	556
Southwestern States.....	428	230	359	369	447	592	755	847	852
Arkansas.....	305	152	246	252	332	448	519	617	654
Louisiana.....	415	222	354	357	433	549	722	788	785
Oklahoma.....	455	226	340	356	417	590	728	860	889
Texas.....	465	257	401	413	497	655	840	925	917
All other States.....	795	429	624	667	802	985	1,180	1,275	1,290
Percent of national per capita income									
United States.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0*	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Southern States.....	54.6	57.1	59.9	59.1	60.8	64.4	66.6	68.7	69.3
Southeastern States.....	49.9	53.8	56.2	56.3	58.7	62.1	63.5	65.3	66.7
Virginia.....	62.1	72.3	74.6	78.3	81.5	85.6	80.1	78.4	78.5
North Carolina.....	45.4	55.7	57.1	55.0	57.3	60.4	58.7	62.0	63.7
South Carolina.....	37.1	45.4	48.4	49.7	51.1	54.9	55.3	57.5	57.7
Georgia.....	48.4	54.3	53.8	54.8	56.1	58.8	62.9	64.4	64.8
Florida.....	71.2	73.9	82.0	81.9	76.6	79.4	84.5	83.8	86.6
Kentucky.....	54.6	54.1	55.1	53.6	53.2	55.0	58.9	61.9	63.9
Tennessee.....	51.3	51.6	54.7	55.1	59.6	59.5	63.4	67.8	70.7
Alabama.....	44.9	41.8	44.9	46.6	51.8	55.9	57.9	59.8	60.9
Mississippi.....	40.1	33.4	37.3	35.1	40.8	45.9	46.4	47.7	48.3
Southwestern States.....	62.9	62.5	66.4	64.2	64.5	68.7	72.6	74.8	74.1
Arkansas.....	44.9	41.3	45.6	43.8	47.9	52.0	49.9	54.5	56.9
Louisiana.....	61.0	60.3	65.7	62.1	62.5	63.7	69.4	69.5	68.3
Oklahoma.....	66.9	61.4	63.1	61.9	60.2	68.4	70.0	75.9	77.3
Texas.....	68.4	69.8	74.4	71.8	71.7	76.0	80.8	81.6	79.8
All other States.....	116.9	116.6	115.8	116.0	115.7	114.3	113.5	112.5	112.2

*¹ Per capita income payments are derived by division of total income payments by total population (excluding armed forces and civilians outside continental United States). For residents of Virginia employed outside that State, income was transferred from the State of the recipients' employment.

² Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Survey of Current Business, August 1946, and unpublished data.

Among the Southern States, the lowest per capita income has consistently been found in Mississippi, where in 1933 it was only \$123, 33 percent of the average income in the country. However, this amount has steadily increased until in 1945 it was 48 percent of the country's average. For a considerable period, Florida has come closest to the national average in per capita income payments—being 71 percent of this amount in 1929 and rising to 87 percent in 1945. During the war years, both Texas and Virginia were around the 80-percent level.

CIVILIAN POPULATION

The inclusion of military pay rolls in total income served to increase southern per capita income during the war years, as average military

pay was generally higher than per capita income to civilians in the South. It is desirable, therefore, to examine civilian per capita income by deducting wage payments to armed forces personnel (table 2).

TABLE 2.—*Per Capita Income Payments to Civilian Population, by Region, 1940–45¹*

Region	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945
Civilian per capita income payments						
United States	\$573	\$694	\$860	\$1,050	\$1,143	\$1,158
Southern States	337	417	539	681	771	791
Southeastern States	321	402	517	644	730	761
Southwestern States	367	441	580	749	846	849
All other States	666	802	985	1,192	1,285	1,299
Percent of national civilian per capita income						
United States	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Southern States	58.8	60.1	62.7	64.9	67.5	68.3
Southeastern States	56.0	57.9	60.1	61.3	63.9	65.7
Southwestern States	64.0	64.0	67.4	71.3	74.0	73.3
All other States	116.2	115.6	114.5	113.5	112.4	112.2

¹ Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Survey of Current Business, August 1946, and unpublished data.

This procedure somewhat reduces the per capita income in certain of the Southern States, particularly in the early years of the war, but in the other States where civilian average incomes were higher than military pay, per capita income was increased. The deduction of military pay lowered per capita income in the South from \$555 to \$539 in 1942, and from \$797 to 791 in 1945.

Clearly, there was not sufficient difference between the levels of military and civilian income payments to change any of the important generalizations with respect to the relationship of the South to the rest of the country. The change, however measured, in per capita incomes in the Southern States between 1940 and 1945 more than matched the doubling of incomes in the rest of the country. As a consequence, per capita incomes in the South were appreciably nearer the national average at the end of the period.

Income Status of the Southern Worker

The per capita measures of income take cognizance of the changes in population and represent the income of the average individual—man, woman, or child. The aggregate measures of income, which will be presented later, are useful in showing the relationships of the various economic groups and the relative changes occurring in the economic position of these groups. Both measures fail to describe with any degree of precision the income status of the individual worker.

The ideal procedure for the purpose of describing earnings of typical workers would be to obtain average annual wages for all homogeneous groups of workers, broken down by State, industry division, occupation, sex, race, age, etc. It is unfortunate that data of this sort are not available. For most commercial and industrial workers, however, State unemployment-compensation tabulations can be used to show average annual wages and salaries in the major industries. The best available data for showing the status of farm workers in the various States are the farm wage rates compiled by the United States Bureau of Agricultural Economics.

ANNUAL WAGES IN INDUSTRY

The average worker in southern industry improved his annual earnings during the war in absolute terms and in relation to the average worker in the country as a whole. In table 3, average annual wages of workers covered by State unemployment-compensation laws are shown for seven major industries from 1939 through 1944. These average wages rose steadily in the South, from \$1,016 in 1939

TABLE 3.—*Average Annual Wages and Salaries¹ of Workers Covered by Unemployment-Compensation Laws, United States and the South, by Major Industry Groups, 1939-44²*

Year	All covered industries ³			Mining ⁴			Contract construction			Manufacturing		
	United States	South		United States	South		United States	South		United States	South	
		Average wage and salary	Percent of national average		Average wage and salary	Percent of national average		Average wage and salary	Percent of national average		Average wage and salary	Percent of national average
1939	\$1,360	\$1,016	74.7	\$1,379	\$1,343	97.4	\$1,315	\$892	67.8	\$1,357	\$941	69.3
1940	1,405	1,058	75.3	1,404	1,362	97.0	1,368	1,015	74.2	1,436	987	68.7
1941	1,572	1,186	75.4	1,597	1,516	94.9	1,680	1,366	81.3	1,658	1,123	67.7
1942	1,867	1,419	76.0	1,818	1,660	91.3	2,246	1,846	82.2	2,031	1,397	68.8
1943	2,145	1,641	76.5	2,188	1,999	91.4	2,599	2,169	83.5	2,356	1,691	71.8
1944	2,302	1,798	78.1	2,527	2,365	93.6	2,744	2,371	86.4	2,525	1,879	74.4
Transportation, ⁵ communication, and other public utilities				Wholesale and retail trade			Finance, insurance, and real estate			Service		
1939	\$1,538	\$1,159	75.4	\$1,285	\$1,041	81.0	\$1,795	\$1,592	88.7	\$1,207	\$849	70.3
1940	1,560	1,197	76.7	1,307	1,067	81.6	1,749	1,577	90.2	1,213	861	71.0
1941	1,636	1,290	78.9	1,400	1,140	81.4	1,798	1,633	90.8	1,271	919	72.3
1942	1,803	1,450	80.4	1,524	1,232	80.8	1,901	1,735	91.3	1,396	1,040	74.5
1943	2,085	1,650	81.1	1,678	1,363	81.2	2,057	1,859	90.4	1,579	1,176	74.5
1944	2,214	1,839	83.1	1,825	1,497	82.0	2,208	1,998	90.5	1,745	1,275	73.1

¹ Obtained by dividing total wages and salaries paid in covered employment in the various industries by the average employment in these industries. The latter figures are averages of 12 monthly figures, each of which is a total of the number of workers in the industry in the last pay period of the month.

² Source: Federal Security Agency, Employment Security Activities, May 1946, for United States averages and 1944 averages for the South. Other years for the South are derived from data in the Social Security Yearbooks of the Federal Security Agency.

³ Includes data for covered workers in agriculture, forestry, fishing, and establishments not elsewhere classified.

⁴ Includes crude petroleum and natural gas production.

⁵ Excludes railroads and other allied groups subject to the Railroad Unemployment Insurance Act.

to \$1,798 in 1944, an increase of 77 percent. This compares with an increase of 69 percent for the country as a whole, from \$1,360 in 1939 to \$2,302 in 1944.

In 1939, average annual earnings in the different industries in the South ranged from \$849 in service to \$1,592 in finance. By 1944, the averages had shifted in relative rank, but service was still lowest with \$1,275, while contract construction was highest with \$2,371. Averages in the Southwest were generally higher than in the Southeastern States. In mining, the presence of the high-wage petroleum industry raised average annual wages in the Southwest above the level of the country as a whole. In all the industries except mining, wages of the southern worker drew nearer to the national average between 1939 and 1944. These estimates of annual earnings do not represent all workers, as in 1944 only about 70 percent of all wages and salaries in the country were paid to workers in industries covered by State unemployment-insurance laws. In the South, moreover, only about 55 percent of total wages and salaries were paid in covered industries. Among those excluded from coverage are farmers, farm workers, and domestic workers, and these groups form substantial proportions of the southern labor force. In addition, 10 of the 13 Southern States cover only firms employing 8 or more workers. Since average earnings of employees in the smallest firms tend to be relatively low, average annual wages of workers covered by unemployment compensation in the South are biased upward as compared with the rest of the country. Nevertheless, as a measure of wages in industrial and commercial establishments of other than very small size, such figures have significance.

It should be clear that the differentials in earnings measure variations in opportunity for employment as well as wage and salary differences, as more commonly understood. For example, average annual wages in southern manufacturing reflect the average return in wages to workers in those particular industries that happen to exist in the South. Similarly, average annual wages in manufacturing in the remainder of the country reflect the return to workers in a somewhat different industrial structure, utilizing, to some extent, other types of skills and other proportions of various grades of skill. Regional wage differentials as such are considered in a separate article.*

INCOME IN AGRICULTURE

Although agriculture has become relatively less important in the southern economy, the income status of the individual farmer and farm worker has considerably improved since the depression years. Migration of farm population has alleviated somewhat the pressure of

* See the article *Regional Wage Differentials*, page 511 of this issue.

population on the land. It enabled those who remained to improve greatly their position when the demand for farm products and farm prices increased in the prewar and war years. Average net farm income per farm in the South increased from \$582 in 1940 to \$1,708 in 1944. The threefold increase in net farm income during this period, although about the same as in the rest of the country, is more significant for the South. In this region, the greater rate of decrease in the number of farms and farm population led to larger average-sized farms which, with increased productivity, placed agriculture on a somewhat better economic basis.

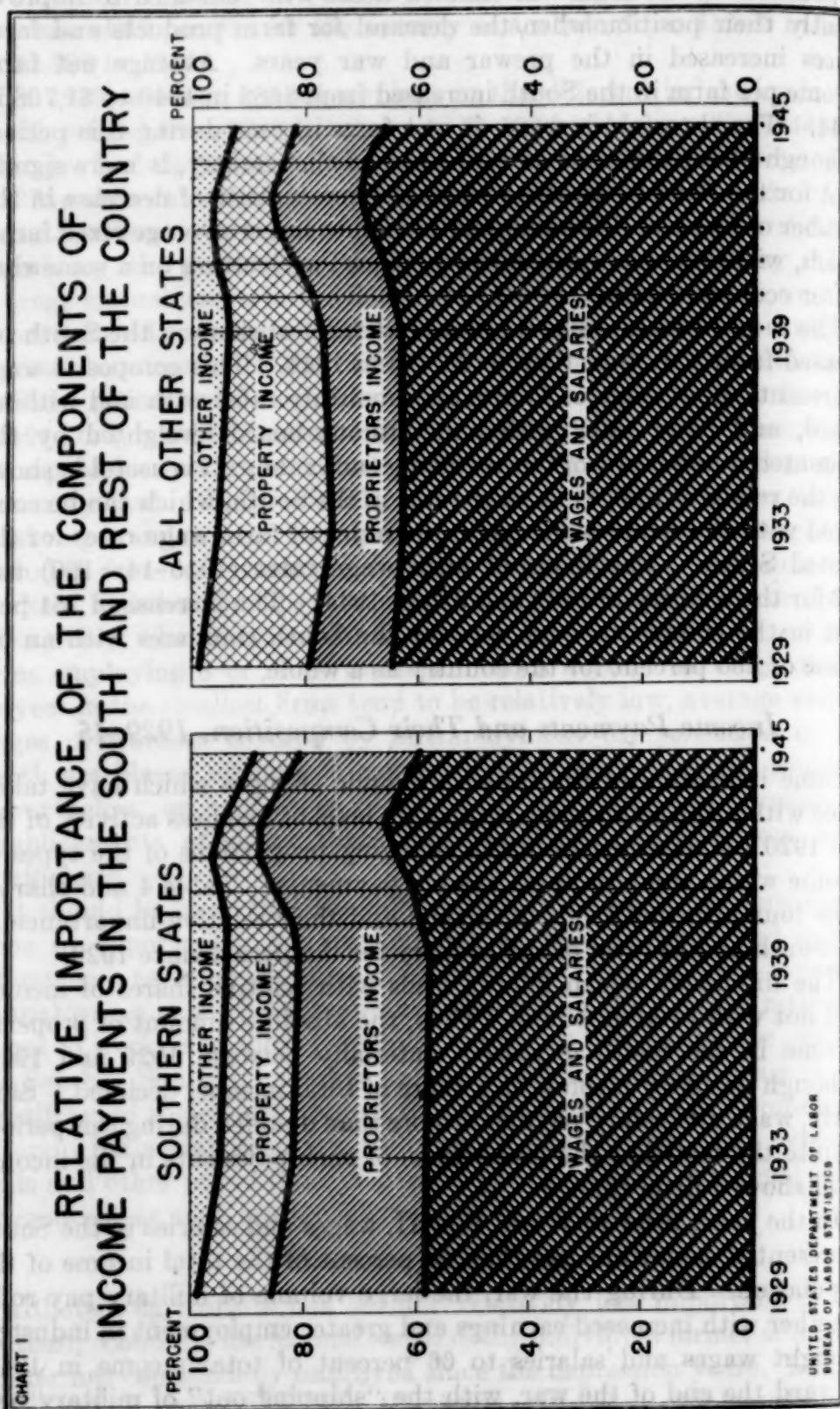
The monthly composite wage rate of farm workers in the South increased from \$21.20 in 1939 to \$53.20 in 1944. This composite wage represents an average of four rates—monthly rates with and without board, and daily rates with and without board—weighted by the estimated number of workers receiving each rate. It is useful in showing the relative changes in wage rates in the South, which can be compared with the relative change in the index of farm wage rates for the United States. The index of farm wage rates (1910-14=100) was 123 for the country in 1939 and 315 in 1944. The increase of 151 percent in the composite wage rate for the South compares with an increase of 156 percent for the country as a whole.

Income Payments and Their Composition, 1929-45

Some indication of the broad economic changes which have taken place within the country since the high level of business activity of the late 1920's is obtained from the changing proportions of the types of income which compose total income payments. Table 4 and chart 1 show four principal kinds of income and their relative importance in the South and the rest of the country for the period since 1929.

The discussion which follows deals with relative shares of income and not with total amounts. Thus, the absolute amount of property income in the South increased materially between 1929 and 1945, although property income, as a share of total income, declined. Similarly, wage and salary payments more than doubled during this period, despite the fact that the proportions of such payments in the income total showed little change.

In the years prior to World War II, wages and salaries in the South represented somewhat less than 60 percent of the total income of the population. During the war, the large volume of military pay rolls, together with increased earnings and greater employment in industry, brought wages and salaries to 66 percent of total income in 1943. Toward the end of the war, with the "shipping out" of military personnel and the increasing importance of family allotments and mustering-out pay, the proportion of wages and salaries was reduced to



its prewar relationship. In the other States, the proportion of income going to wage and salary earners has always been greater than in the South. This reflects the relatively greater number of industrial workers and smaller number of farmers and farm workers⁷ in the States outside the South.

TABLE 4.—*Total Income Payments and Their Composition, the South and all Other States, 1929-45¹*

Year	Southern States					All other States				
	Total income payments	Wages and salaries	Proprietors' income	Property income	Other income	Total income payments	Wages and salaries	Proprietors' income	Property income	Other income
Amount (in millions)										
1929	\$12,428	\$7,234	\$3,387	\$1,656	\$151	\$70,189	\$45,202	\$10,429	\$13,630	\$928
1933	7,225	4,200	1,710	935	380	39,048	24,366	4,922	7,793	1,967
1939	11,764	6,778	2,748	1,467	771	58,837	37,072	8,225	9,556	3,984
1940	12,524	7,416	2,852	1,447	809	63,328	40,579	8,996	9,888	3,865
1941	15,805	9,570	3,830	1,586	819	76,464	50,373	11,954	10,697	3,440
1942	21,114	13,429	5,113	1,700	812	94,187	64,519	15,260	11,030	3,379
1943	26,633	17,523	5,740	1,941	1,429	112,649	78,871	17,679	11,728	4,371
1944	29,160	18,367	6,190	2,110	2,493	120,500	83,303	17,859	12,553	6,785
1945	29,787	17,732	6,384	2,227	3,444	122,917	80,962	19,010	13,537	9,408
Percentage distribution										
1929	100.0	58.2	27.3	13.3	1.2	100.0	64.4	14.9	19.4	1.3
1933	100.0	58.1	23.7	12.9	5.3	100.0	62.4	12.6	20.0	5.0
1939	100.0	57.6	23.4	12.5	6.5	100.0	63.0	14.0	16.2	6.8
1940	100.0	59.2	22.8	11.5	6.5	100.0	64.1	14.2	15.6	6.1
1941	100.0	60.6	24.2	10.0	5.2	100.0	65.9	15.6	14.0	4.5
1942	100.0	63.6	24.2	8.3	3.9	100.0	68.5	16.2	11.7	3.6
1943	100.0	65.8	21.6	7.3	5.3	100.0	70.0	15.7	10.4	3.9
1944	100.0	63.0	21.2	7.2	8.6	100.0	69.1	14.8	10.4	5.7
1945	100.0	59.5	21.4	7.5	11.6	100.0	65.9	15.5	11.0	7.6

¹ Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Survey of Current Business, August 1945 and August 1946.

The decreased importance of proprietors' income in the South which started in the depression years of the early 1930's continued throughout the war period. From 27 percent of total income payments in 1929, income to unincorporated business, including agriculture, declined to 23 percent in 1940 and to 21 percent in 1945. The relative increase in wages and salaries in the first part of the war and of "other income" toward its close, and the large decrease in the number of farm proprietors throughout the period, were important reasons for the smaller share of total income going to proprietors during the war. While this decline was taking place in the South, proprietors' income remained a much more stable component of the total in the rest of the country.

The proportion of income received from property, represented by net rents and royalties, interest, and dividends, has been decreasing throughout the country since 1929. The decrease received added impetus during the war with increased taxes, rent ceilings, and

⁷ In 1940, farmers and farm workers represented 34 percent of the employed labor force in the Southern States, compared with only 12 percent in the rest of the country.

declining interest rates. In the South, income from property fell from 13 percent of total income in 1929 to 12 percent in 1940 and to 8 percent in 1945. The greater concentration of wealth in the rest of the country led to an even greater percentage decline in its proportion of property income.

The "other" type of income payments became substantially more important in all parts of the country after 1929. In the thirties, the increase resulted from the large volume of relief and work-relief payments and social-security benefits. The latter became significant toward the end of the decade. With many dependents of military personnel living in the Southern States during the war, the inclusion of family-allowance payments and allotments made the category of "other income" relatively more important in the South after 1942. The inclusion of mustering-out payments to veterans in 1944 and 1945 raised the proportion still higher in the Southern States.

Aggregate Income Payments

Although per capita income in the South is still considerably below the national average, as indicated earlier in this article, income payments showed remarkable gains in these States during the immediate prewar and war years. Not only has the income level of the population been raised in absolute terms, but an increasing share of the Nation's total income has been going to these 13 States. In 1929, 15 percent of the country's total income payments went to the South. By 1940, this proportion had gone up to 17 percent, and by 1945 to 20 percent (table 5).

Each of the nine Southeastern States increased its proportion of total income payments between 1929 and 1945. To this group of

TABLE 5.—*Total Income Payments and Percentage Distribution, by Region, 1929–45¹*

Region	1929	1933	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945
Total income payments (in millions)									
United States ²	\$82,617	\$46,273	\$70,601	\$75,852	\$92,260	\$115,301	\$139,282	\$149,660	\$152,704
Southern States.....	12,428	7,225	11,764	12,524	15,805	21,114	26,633	29,160	29,787
Southeastern States.....	7,257	4,361	7,108	7,703	9,856	13,133	16,384	17,986	18,602
Southwestern States.....	5,171	2,864	4,656	4,821	5,949	7,981	10,249	11,174	11,185
All other States.....	70,189	39,048	58,837	63,328	76,464	94,187	112,649	120,500	122,917
Percent of total United States									
United States ³	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Southern States.....	15.0	15.6	16.7	16.5	17.1	18.3	19.1	19.5	19.5
Southeastern States.....	8.8	9.4	10.1	10.1	10.7	11.4	11.8	12.0	12.2
Southwestern States.....	6.2	6.2	6.6	6.4	6.4	6.9	7.3	7.5	7.3
All other States.....	85.0	84.4	83.3	83.5	82.9	81.7	80.9	80.5	80.5

¹ Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Survey of Current Business, August 1946.

² Includes only payments to residents of the continental United States, therefore excluding pay of armed forces and Federal civilian employees stationed outside the country.

States in the aggregate went 9 percent of the country's total income payments in 1929, 10 percent in 1940, and 12 percent in 1945. The four Southwestern States raised their aggregate share of the Nation's income during the period after 1940 by about 1 percent.

The growth in the relative importance of the Southeast in manufacturing during the 1930's accounts largely for the increasing proportion of income payments going to the South in the years prior to the war. During the period of rearmament and war, the Southern States, with an important share of military establishments and other war activities, showed the tremendous gains indicated.

In dollar amounts of income, the South made more rapid progress than the rest of the country in recovering from the low point of the depression years. By 1940, the Southern States had recovered the 1929 level of income payments, whereas the remainder of the country was still 10 percent below that level. By 1945, southern income was 240 percent of the 1929 amount, compared with 175 percent for the rest of the country. The smallest relative increase among the Southern States was shown by Oklahoma—169 percent of the 1929 amount—the largest by Florida—343 percent of the 1929 amount.

WAGES AND SALARIES AND THEIR COMPOSITION

Aggregate wages and salaries.—The proportion of the country's total wages and salaries which were paid in the South increased steadily from 1929 to 1945—from 14 percent of the total in 1929 to 16 percent in 1940 and 18 percent in 1945 (table 6). The relationship of the South to the rest of the country, with respect to this most important component of income payments, paralleled very closely that of total income payments. The important changes in wages and salaries are reflected in total income.

TABLE 6.—*Wages and Salaries and Percentage Distribution, by Region, 1929–45*¹

Region	1929	1933	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945
Wages and salaries (in millions)									
United States.....	\$52,436	\$28,568	\$43,850	\$47,905	\$59,943	\$77,948	\$96,394	\$101,670	\$98,694
Southern States.....	7,234	4,200	6,778	7,416	9,570	13,429	17,523	18,367	17,732
Southeastern States.....	4,321	2,580	4,188	4,678	6,164	8,537	10,890	11,380	11,039
Southwestern States.....	2,913	1,620	2,590	2,738	3,406	4,892	6,633	6,987	6,693
All other States.....	45,202	24,366	37,072	40,579	50,373	64,519	78,871	83,303	80,962
Percent of total United States									
United States.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Southern States.....	13.8	14.7	15.5	15.5	16.0	17.2	18.2	18.1	18.0
Southeastern States.....	8.2	9.0	9.6	9.7	10.3	10.9	11.3	11.2	11.2
Southwestern States.....	5.6	5.7	5.9	5.8	5.7	6.3	6.9	6.9	6.8
All other States.....	86.2	85.3	84.5	84.5	84.0	82.8	81.8	81.9	82.0

¹ Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Survey of Current Business, August 1945 and August 1946.

Aggregate wages and salaries in the South rose from 7,234 million dollars in 1929 to 17,732 million dollars in 1945, an increase of 145 percent. This compares with an increase of only 79 percent for the rest of the country during the same period.

Changes in wages and salaries and their components from the period of rearmament to the end of the war are shown in tables 7 and 8 and chart 2. During this period all the important wage groups in the southern economy, except farm workers, increased their aggregate wage income faster than those in the rest of the country.

Manufacturing wages and salaries.—Manufacturing wages and salaries in the South increased from 1,562 million dollars in 1929, about 10 percent of total manufacturing pay rolls in the country, to 4,653 million dollars in 1945, 12 percent of the country's total (table 7). In general, the prewar gain is attributable to increased factory pay rolls in the Southeastern States. The gain during the war was largely caused by the growth of war manufacturing both in the Southeast and the Southwest.

The South responded to the Nation's need for war materials of all kinds by increasing the relative output of manufacturing in its economy (as measured by wages and salaries) from 23 percent of total pay rolls in 1940 to 28 percent in 1944, the year of greatest war production. While the increase in the Southeast was from 27 percent to 30 percent in 1944, the Southwestern States showed a remarkable change, from 16 to 26 percent. That these changes may not be entirely permanent is suggested by the fact that in 1945 manufacturing pay rolls declined to 29 percent of total wages and salaries in the Southeast and to 22 percent in the Southwest.

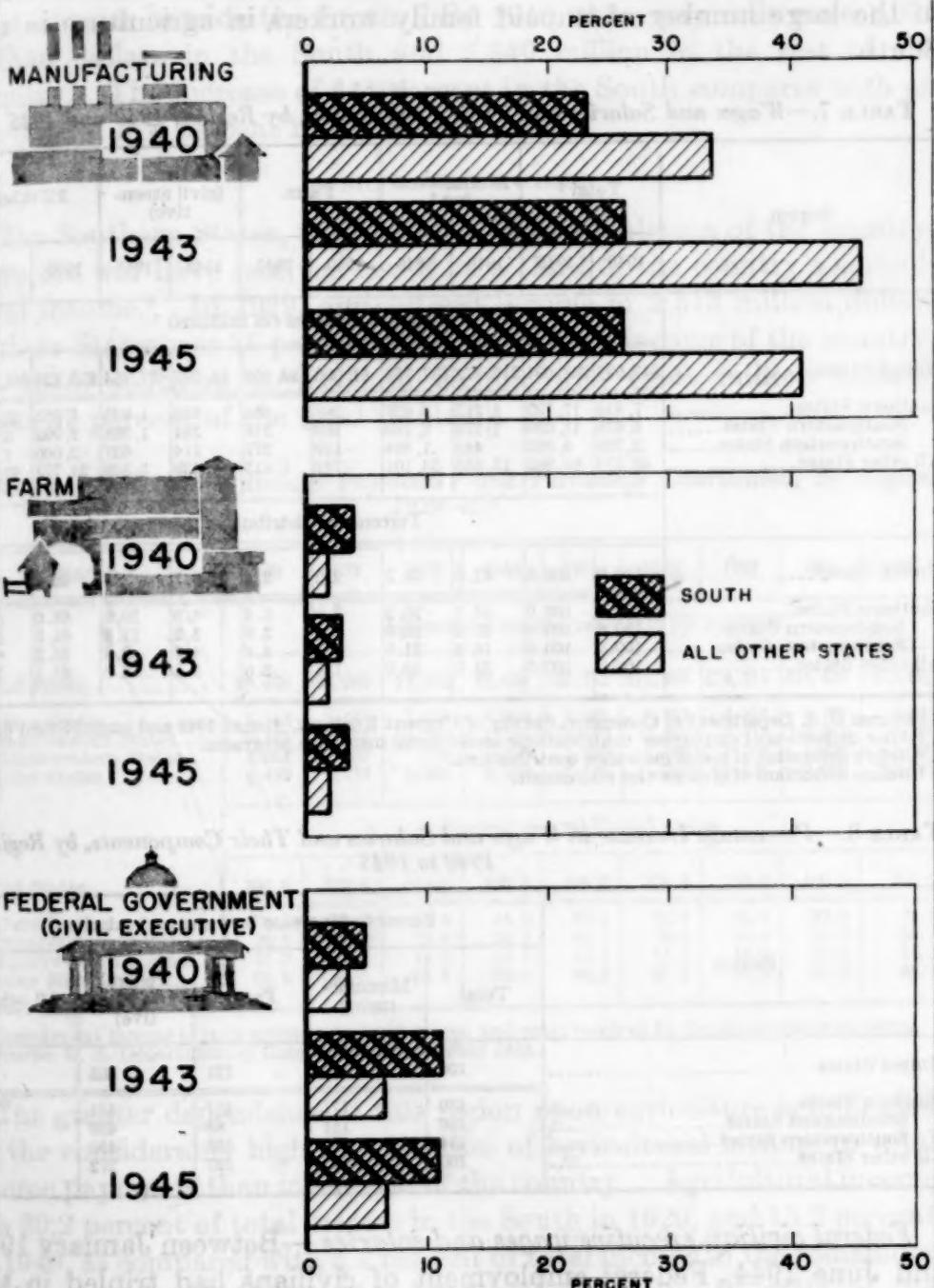
The States outside the South gave even greater emphasis to manufacturing during the war, increasing their proportion of manufacturing to total pay rolls from 34 percent in 1940 to 45 percent in 1944. The cessation of war production brought this proportion down to 41 percent in 1945.

Farm wages.—The rise in industrial activity and the decrease in agricultural employment, during the war years, resulted in a decline in the relative importance of farm wages in total wage and salary payments in the South, despite a substantial increase in agricultural wage rates. From 4.4 percent of total wages and salaries in the South in 1929, farm wages declined to 3.9 percent in 1940 and to 3.4 percent in 1945. Agriculture is a less important part of the economy in the rest of the country, and farm wages remained a fairly stable component of total wages—about 2 percent from 1929 to 1945.

Approximately half the country's farm workers are in the Southern States; these workers receive less than 30 percent of total national farm-wage payments. The 319 million dollars paid southern farm

CHART 2

MANUFACTURING, FARM, AND FEDERAL GOVERNMENT WAGES AND SALARIES AS PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL WAGES AND SALARIES IN THE SOUTH AND REST OF THE COUNTRY



workers in 1929 was about a fourth of the farm wages paid in the country in that year. In 1940, southern farm wages were 29 percent of the country's total, and in 1945 the 596 million dollars paid in farm wages was 27 percent of all farm wages. The explanation for the discrepancy between the proportions of total farm workers and total farm wages lies not only in the farm wage differential but also in the large number of unpaid family workers in agriculture in the South.

TABLE 7.—*Wages and Salaries and Their Composition, by Region, 1940 and 1945*¹

Region	Total ²		Manufacturing ³		Farm		Federal ⁴ (civil executive)		All other	
	1940	1945	1940	1945	1940	1945	1940	1945	1940	1945
Wages and salaries (in millions)										
United States.....	\$47,905	\$98,604	\$15,372	\$37,754	\$1,000	\$2,210	\$1,797	\$7,284	\$29,826	\$51,446
Southern States.....	7,416	17,732	1,717	4,653	288	596	358	1,935	5,053	10,548
Southeastern States.....	4,678	11,039	1,273	3,189	169	318	244	1,308	2,992	6,224
Southwestern States.....	2,738	6,693	445	1,464	119	277	114	627	2,060	4,325
All other States.....	40,579	80,962	13,655	33,101	712	1,615	1,439	5,349	24,773	40,897
Percentage distribution										
United States.....	100.0	100.0	32.0	38.3	2.2	2.2	3.7	7.4	62.1	52.1
Southern States.....	100.0	100.0	23.2	26.2	3.9	3.4	4.9	10.9	68.0	59.5
Southeastern States.....	100.0	100.0	27.2	28.9	3.6	2.9	5.2	11.8	64.0	56.4
Southwestern States.....	100.0	100.0	16.2	21.9	4.4	4.1	4.2	9.4	75.2	64.6
All other States.....	100.0	100.0	33.6	40.9	1.8	2.0	3.5	6.6	61.1	50.5

¹ Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Survey of Current Business, August 1946 and unpublished data.

² After deduction of employees' contributions under social insurance programs.

³ Before deduction of social insurance contributions.

⁴ Before deduction of civil service retirement.

TABLE 8.—*Percentage Increase in Wages and Salaries and Their Components, by Region, 1940 to 1945*

Region	Percent of increase in wages and salaries				
	Total	Manufacturing	Farm	Federal (civil executive)	All other
United States.....	106	146	121	305	73
Southern States.....	139	171	107	441	109
Southeastern States.....	136	151	88	438	108
Southwestern States.....	144	229	133	450	110
All other States.....	100	142	127	272	65

Federal civilian executive wages and salaries.—Between January 1940 and June 1944, Federal employment of civilians had tripled in the States outside the South; in the South, on the latter date, there were about four times the earlier number. During the war, Government pay rolls for civilian employees became an important component of

the total wage bill in the Southern States. In 1940, 5 percent of all wages and salaries in this region were payments to Federal employees in the executive branch. This proportion more than doubled by 1945 and represented 11 percent of total wages and salaries in that year. Government pay rolls of civilian executive employees in the South were 358 million dollars in 1940 compared with 1,439 million in the States outside the South. By 1945, these pay rolls were 1,935 million dollars in the South and 5,349 million in the rest of the country. The increase of 441 percent in the South compares with an increase of 272 percent in the other States.

AGRICULTURAL INCOME

The Southern States, with half the farm population of the country, since the war have received less than a third of the country's agricultural income.⁸ In 1929, agricultural income of 2,513 million dollars in these States was 36 percent of the total farm income of the country. By 1945, southern agricultural income was 4,821 million dollars, about 32 percent of the total (table 9).

TABLE 9.—*Agricultural Income Payments¹ and Percentage Distribution, by Region, 1929-45²*

Region	1929	1933	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945
Agricultural income payments (in millions)									
United States.....	\$6,965	\$2,962	\$5,302	\$5,438	\$7,718	\$11,494	\$14,211	\$14,418	\$15,091
Southern States.....	2,513	1,244	1,956	1,906	2,562	3,762	4,315	4,737	4,821
Southeastern States.....	1,448	757	1,186	1,138	1,472	2,249	2,612	2,917	3,129
Southwestern States.....	1,065	487	770	768	1,090	1,513	1,703	1,820	1,692
All other States.....	4,452	1,718	3,346	3,532	5,156	7,732	9,896	9,681	10,270
Percent of total United States									
United States.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Southern States.....	36.1	42.0	36.9	35.0	33.2	32.7	30.4	32.8	31.9
Southeastern States.....	20.8	25.6	22.4	20.9	19.1	19.6	18.4	20.2	20.7
Southwestern States.....	15.3	16.4	14.5	14.1	14.1	13.1	12.0	12.6	11.2
All other States.....	63.9	58.0	63.1	65.0	66.8	67.3	69.6	67.2	68.1

¹ Includes net income of farm proprietors, farm wages, and rents received by landlords living on farms.

² Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, unpublished data.

The greater dependence of this region upon agriculture is indicated by the considerably higher proportion of agricultural income to total income payments than in the rest of the country. Agricultural income was 20.2 percent of total income in the South in 1929, and 15.2 percent by 1940, as compared with 6.3 percent of total income in the remainder of the country in 1929 and 5.6 percent in 1940. In spite of the tremendously increased farm value of the South's principal crops—

* Includes net income of farm proprietors, farm wages, and rents received by landlords living on farms.

cotton and tobacco—the proportion did not rise much higher during the war years, being 16.2 percent in 1945 as compared with 8.4 percent in the other States.

MILITARY PAYMENTS

Military payments⁹ during the war were a substantial part of total income payments in the Southern States. The presence in these States of many of the military training installations concentrated large numbers of military personnel and their families in the region. Since military pay is credited to the States in which the personnel are stationed, such payments considerably increased aggregate income in the South.

Military payments in the South rose from 142 million dollars in 1940 to 4,377 million in 1945. The importance of this type of payment is seen in its increasing percentage of total income in the South—from 1.1 percent in 1940 to 14.7 percent in 1945. These proportions were 0.3 percent and 6.8 percent, respectively, for the remainder of the country.

⁹ Include net pay of the armed forces, family allowance payments, voluntary allotment of pay to individuals, and mustering-out pay.

III—Regional Wage Differentials¹

INTEREST in geographical wage differentials in the United States has centered mainly on North-South deviations. In part, this approach oversimplifies the problem, since it obscures the fact that substantial wage differences also exist within the North as well as within the South.² There are many reasons, of course, why the difference between northern and southern wages has been the focus of so much attention. Insofar as wage rates are a determinant of worker income, differences in rates contribute to regional inequalities in standards of living and welfare. In highly competitive industries, such as cotton textiles, the movement of industry to the South and the difficulties faced by trade-unions in maintaining and raising northern textile wages have historically been closely related to regional differences in industry wage levels. Similarly, in other competitive industries, especially those in which a large proportion of the labor force is composed of unskilled and semiskilled workers (as in wooden-nonupholstered furniture, lumber, and cotton garments), the spread between northern and southern wages has been of great economic significance. Moreover, in legislative deliberations on minimum wages it has been apparent that the setting of national levels in various industries is influenced by the level of wages in the lowest wage region.

While the special position of the South's wage level impinges on many problems regarding wage determination in the United States, this analysis does not deal with geographic wage differentials primarily in terms of the North versus the South. Instead, an effort has been made to throw light on significant wage differentials among eight major regions. The data available for this purpose were collected and processed under uniform procedures in 1945 and 1946, and for each of the selected industries nine regional groupings are usually provided—two in the South and seven in the remainder of the country. In view of the fact that the Mountain States contain few large manufacturing industries, comparisons of wages are confined to the following regions: New England, Middle Atlantic, Border States,

¹ Prepared by Harry Ober and Carrie Glasser of the Bureau's Wage Analysis Branch. The statistical work for this article was prepared under the direction of Samuel E. Cohen.

² Several studies have shown that the dispersion of wages within the South is considerably greater than within the North. See Carrie Glasser: *Wage Differentials, The Case of the Unskilled* (New York, Columbia University Press, 1940); and Richard A. Lester: *Diversity in North-South Wage Differentials* and in *Wage Rates within the South* (in *Southern Economic Journal*, January 1946, pp. 238-262).

Southeast, Southwest, Middle West, Great Lakes, and Pacific.³ It should be observed that these groupings do not imply that wages are uniform within each region. It is believed, however, that the use of eight regions permits a more accurate reflection of regional wage variations than would be obtained from a comparison limited to the North and South.

Characteristic Regional Wage Positions

For the purpose of determining what geographical wage differences are characteristic of the United States today, the data studied consist of straight-time average hourly earnings which exclude overtime payments and other forms of premium income. While these figures are not synonymous with hourly rates, they afford as close an approximation to rates as it is possible to secure with the available wage statistics. Although changes in straight-time hourly earnings owing to wage-rate increases have occurred throughout the country since 1945,⁴ it is probable that, on the whole, the adjustments have had less effect on geographical differences than on the absolute level of wages in particular regions. However, to the extent that geographical relationships have been altered, the present findings deviate from the situation as it existed in August 1946.

The main groups of manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries used in this analysis are shown in table 1. While the choice of industries was limited by the availability of recent information, it was also influenced by the desire to include as many important southern industries as possible, since the relative level of southern wages is a significant part of the present study. However, industries which are found almost entirely in the South, such as cigarette manufacturing, were excluded because meaningful comparisons with other regions were not possible. On the other hand, table 1 does not contain data for such important southern industries as lumber and bituminous-coal mining. For these industries the available wage statistics were not amenable to classification according to the eight broad economic regions. These industries are, however, treated separately in the following discussion. Despite the fact that the sample of industries used in table 1 gives major weight to industries typical of the South,

³ The States included in these regions are as follows: *New England*—Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont; *Middle Atlantic*—New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania; *Border States*—Delaware, District of Columbia, Kentucky, Maryland, and West Virginia; *Southeast*—Virginia, Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Tennessee; *Southwest*—Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas; *Great Lakes*—Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Ohio, and Wisconsin; *Middle West*—Iowa, Kansas, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, and South Dakota; *Pacific*—California, Nevada, Oregon, and Washington.

Reference is made in footnote 6 to the wage level found in the Mountain States on the basis of such material as is available.

In the Wage Structure reports issued by the Bureau, Virginia was included in the Border States.

⁴ The period covered by this analysis is from January 1945 to April 1946, except the railroad industry for which only 1946 data were available.

TABLE 1.—*Regional Indexes of Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings¹ of All Workers in Selected Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries*[United States industry average² = 100]

Industry ³ and date of survey	Average straight-time earnings, United States ⁴	Regional indexes of straight-time hourly earnings							
		New Eng-	Mid-	Bor-	South-	South-	Great	Mid-	Pa-
	land	At-	der	east	west	Lakes	West	cific	
Manufacturing									
Metalworking (January 1945):									
Fabricated structural steel	\$0.97	107.2	102.1	99.0	85.6	85.6	101.0	89.7	122.7
Iron and steel forgings	1.18	89.8	90.7	(*)	(*)		105.1	(*)	111.0
Ferrous foundries	1.00	91.0	99.0	87.0	69.0	76.0	104.0	85.0	109.0
Machinery, miscellaneous	.98	94.9	99.0	85.7	75.5	92.9	102.0	89.8	116.3
Nonferrous metal foundries	1.03	99.0	94.2	91.3	70.9	78.6	103.9	85.4	108.7
Power boilers and related products	.98	93.9	91.8	89.8	88.8	86.7	106.1	89.8	122.4
Sheet-metal work	1.06	100.9	117.0	(*)	65.1	83.0	93.4	80.2	127.4
Apparel (April 1945):									
Men's and boys' dress shirts	.68	107.4	104.4	91.2	82.4	-----	98.5	85.3	126.5
Overalls and industrial garments	.64	109.4	112.5	103.1	84.4	96.9	109.4	100.0	131.3
Women's and misses' dresses	1.31	74.0	112.2	51.9	48.1	48.1	67.9	67.9	97.7
Work pants, cotton	.58	(*)	122.4	103.4	91.4	93.1	112.1	115.5	130.7
Work shirts	.52	-----	117.3	105.8	96.2	(*)	117.3	(*)	-----
Paper and allied products (October 1945):									
Corrugated and fiber boxes	.78	102.6	105.1	87.2	80.8	87.2	102.6	100.0	121.8
Fiber cans, tubes and similar products	.64	100.0	132.8	110.9	(*)	(*)	112.5	110.9	-----
Folding paper boxes	.79	94.9	101.3	88.6	77.2	75.9	101.3	86.1	126.6
Paper mills	.80	97.5	102.5	97.5	97.5	100.0	102.5	-----	-----
Paperboard mills	.83	95.2	102.4	72.3	92.8	(*)	107.2	-----	120.4
Pulp mills	.92	79.3	(*)	(*)	97.8	90.2	(*)	-----	112.0
Set-up boxes	.68	91.2	105.9	80.9	79.4	77.9	100.0	92.6	120.6
Textiles, cotton (April 1946):									
Integrated spinning and weaving mills	.76	106.6	103.9	96.1	98.7	89.5	-----	-----	-----
Weaving mills	.98	104.1	108.2	-----	77.6	-----	86.7	-----	-----
Yarn mills	.71	112.7	107.0	-----	98.6	-----	-----	-----	-----
Bread and other bakery products (July 1945)	.76	100.0	107.9	93.4	75.0	81.6	101.3	69.1	126.3
Cigars (January 1946)	.73	106.8	100.0	87.7	101.4	71.2	98.6	-----	139.8
Footwear (October 1945)	.83	112.0	114.5	86.7	78.3	-----	86.7	79.5	139.8
Hosiery, full-fashioned (January 1946)	.97	93.8	111.3	92.8	89.7	101.0	103.0	-----	127.8
Hosiery, seamless (January 1946)	.63	111.1	106.3	87.3	98.4	(*)	114.3	-----	-----
Structural clay products (October 1945)	.80	105.0	112.5	102.5	76.3	71.3	102.5	96.3	118.8
Furniture, other than upholstered (October 1945)	.70	102.9	111.4	104.3	80.0	85.7	107.1	92.9	134.3
Furniture, upholstered (October 1945)	.96	99.0	121.9	82.3	76.0	83.3	96.9	94.8	135.4
Nonmanufacturing									
Retail (April 1945):									
Clothing stores	.79	96.1	107.6	87.3	77.2	88.6	103.8	91.1	116.5
Department stores	.67	86.6	104.5	82.1	86.6	97.0	103.0	97.0	100.0
Limited-price variety stores	.41	104.9	102.4	92.7	80.5	82.9	104.9	95.1	134.1
Electric light and power (July 1945)	1.03	101.9	101.0	112.6	84.5	84.5	102.9	87.4	107.8
Power laundries (July 1945)	.52	111.5	119.2	98.1	71.2	75.0	113.5	90.4	132.7
Telephones (October 1945)	.92	102.1	110.8	101.1	89.1	88.0	98.9	84.8	103.3

¹ Excludes premium pay for overtime and night work.² The national average included data for the Mountain region where coverage was obtained.³ Source of data: For all industries except telephone, information based on Bureau of Labor Statistics wage survey. Telephone data taken from wage distributions shown in the annual reports of Bell Telephone Companies to the Federal Communications Commission. The regions for this industry are not exactly identical with those for other industries. Virginia was included in the Border States and only part of Idaho is contained in the Pacific region. Other minor variations were also necessary because of the nature of the carrier's field of operations.⁴ Insufficient coverage to warrant presentation of regional data. In assignment of ranks, however, the region's position in the industry was based on the small coverage.

and is therefore less representative of the industrial composition of other regions, the coverage in all regions is believed adequate for the purpose of determining the characteristic wage position of each area.

The national average of straight-time hourly earnings of all workers in each industry, shown in table 1, was used as the base (100) to convert the average straight-time hourly earnings for each region into relatives or indexes in order that percentage deviations from the base or national average can be seen easily. Differences in money terms can readily be computed from these figures. For example, the New England index of 99 for all workers in nonferrous foundries is 1 percent below the national average of \$1.03 per hour. The actual average rate for New England in this industry was, therefore, \$1.02.

With the exception of the Southeast and Pacific regions, table 1 shows that the position of each region in the national wage scale is not uniform from industry to industry. Indeed, it is somewhat difficult to judge, from examination of the table, where some of the regions fall. To assess how consistently a region maintained a certain position, all regions were ranked according to their level of straight-time average hourly earnings in each industry.⁵

The regional wage positions, based on straight-time average hourly earnings of all workers are shown below. Rank 1 represents the highest wage level.

<i>Rank</i>	<i>Region</i>	<i>Number of industries represented</i>
1	Pacific	29
2	Middle Atlantic	36
3	Great Lakes	34
4	New England	35
5	Middle West	27
6	Border States	34
7	Southwest	31
8	Southeast	36

The Pacific region with great consistency showed the highest wage level, while, with almost equal consistency, the Southeast had the lowest earnings in the country. In 26 out of 29 industries, the Pacific region came out highest; 5 other regions held top rank in a few cases—New England in 2 industries, Middle Atlantic in 5, Great Lakes in 2,

⁵ The region with the highest average was assigned rank 1, second highest was called 2, and so on, with the lowest region bearing rank 8. Where 2 regions had the same average, the rank was split, e. g., if both were tied for highest place, each received the rank 1.5. If three regions were tied, the rank was distributed by thirds, e. g., 2.3 to each of the three regions with the second highest average.

The next step involved the addition of all the ranks of a region; this sum was then divided by the number of industries represented in each region. The result obtained was then used to assign the 8 regions their average position in the national wage scale.

Regional data are not shown in table 1 where industrial coverage was too small or where no coverage was obtained. In some cases, a rank was assigned using the small coverage as a guide. Inequality in the number of industries covered in each region was taken into account by dividing the sum of the ranks of each region by the number of industries represented; the final rank was based on this average.

and the Border States and Middle West in 1 industry each. The indisputably low position of the Southeast is evidenced by the fact that it ranked lowest in 23 out of 36 industries. The Southwest was lowest in 12 industries, New England in 1 (paper mills), the Middle West in 1 (telephone), and the Border States in 4.

Only 1 of the 29 Pacific industries had average earnings lower than the national average, whereas in the Southeast only 1 of 36 industries came above the national average, in the Southwest only 2 out of 31, and in the Border States only 8 out of 34 industries (see table 1). New England's industries were almost equally divided (15 below and 19 above the national average) whereas more than three-quarters of the industries in the Middle Atlantic and Great Lakes States had average hourly earnings that exceeded the national average. It may also be noted that, in at least a fourth of their industries, New England, Great Lakes, Middle West, and the Border States were midway in the national wage scale.⁶

The actual size of the average wage differential between the South and other regions along with the relative importance of each industry in the South, as measured by employment, is shown in table 2, in which data for the Southeast and Southwest were combined. Following are what seem to be the major observations to be drawn from an analysis of these data.

(1) The wage spread between the South and other regions is quite different in the various industries. In paper mills, for example, southern straight-time average hourly earnings in October 1945 equaled earnings in the Border States and in New England and were exceeded by only 5 percent in the Middle Atlantic and Great Lakes States. In pulp mills, earnings in New England were 13 percent below the southern average, reflecting the more modern machinery and techniques and, consequently, greater labor productivity in the southern branch of the industry. An indication of an extremely wide differential is found in the women's dress industry where earnings in the Middle Atlantic States were more than double those in the South. In this industry differentiation with respect to product and types of labor utilized is undoubtedly in good part responsible for the great wage disparity. In the Middle Atlantic States, highly stylized and higher priced garments are produced, compared to the South (with approximately 3 percent of the workers) where housedresses and cotton garments predominate.⁷ However, even within comparable

* On the basis of a small number of industries, the position of the Mountain States would fall between New England and the Middle West.

⁷ While differences in products and character of the labor force make for regional wage variations, there are other important contributing factors such as degree of urbanization, unionization, and method of wage payment. Further study is needed to determine the specific influence of each of these factors on regional wage levels.

price lines, a classification which helps to minimize product differences, the wage spread between northern and southern areas is wide.

(2) Pulp mills have been cited as an industry in which southern average hourly earnings were above those in another region. To this may be added paperboard mills in which earnings in the Border States were 20 percent below the South and cigar manufacturing in which the Great Lakes and Border States showed 1.4 percent and 12.3 percent lower wages, respectively. In seamless hosiery, average earnings in the Border States were 11.3 percent less than in the South, while workers in department stores averaged nearly 10 percent less per hour. New England department store workers showed nearly .5 percent lower hourly wages, on the average, than comparable southern workers. It will be observed that in the few industries where the South had a wage advantage, it was mainly with respect to the Border States, a region with the second lowest wage position (when the Southeast and Southwest are merged into one group).

(3) On the basis of the industry data presented in table 2, there appears to be a slight tendency for the wage differential between the South and other regions to be widest in industries which pay comparatively low wages everywhere in the country. Important exceptions include seamless hosiery in which industry-wide straight-time hourly earnings in January 1946 averaged 63 cents as against 62 cents for southern workers. In two relatively high wage industries, electric light and power and fabricated structural steel, the national averages were \$1.03 and 97 cents, respectively, compared with averages of 83 cents and 87 cents in the South.

(4) Where the South occupies a dominant position in an industry, the wage differential appears to be considerably less than in many other industries in which only a minor proportion of total employment is in the South. However, important exceptions are evident so that the relationship cannot be said to be consistent throughout. Thus, in cotton-textile yarn mills, wages in New England were 14.3 percent higher than in the South where nearly 92 percent of the workers were employed. In integrated spinning and weaving mills (83 percent of total employment in the South) wages were 2.7 percent lower in the Border States compared with the South and only 8 percent and 5 percent higher in New England and the Middle Atlantic States, respectively. In seamless hosiery the differential varied from 11 percent below the southern average to 16 percent above. On the other hand, in such leading southern industries as furniture (other than upholstered) and cotton garments, southern wages were surpassed by a considerably greater margin. Relatively unimportant southern industries, from the standpoint of employment (such as

the metalworking group), showed differentials greatly in excess of those indicated above.

From the preceding analysis the low wage position of the southern regions is clear. This finding can be further supported by an examination of other leading southern industries such as lumber, railroads, bituminous-coal mining, and the building and printing trades.

TABLE 2.—*Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings¹ of All Workers in Selected Industries in the South, Compared With Other Regions*

Industry and date of survey	South ²		Percent by which given region exceeds South					
	Percent of total industry employment	Straight-time average hourly earnings	Border States	New England	Middle Atlantic	Great Lakes	Middle West	Pacific
<i>Manufacturing</i>								
Metalworking (January 1945):								
Fabricated structural steel	19.6	\$0.83	15.7	25.3	19.3	18.1	4.8	43.4
Ferrous foundries	3.7	.72	20.8	26.4	37.5	44.4	18.1	51.4
Machinery, miscellaneous	4.1	.83	1.2	12.0	16.9	20.5	6.0	37.3
Nonferrous foundries	1.7	.78	20.5	30.8	24.4	37.2	12.8	43.6
Power boilers and related products	17.9	.86	2.3	7.0	4.7	20.9	2.3	39.5
Sheet metal	17.7	.76	(3)	40.8	63.2	30.3	11.8	77.6
Apparel (April 1945):								
Men's and boys' dress shirts	18.7	.56	10.7	30.4	26.8	19.6	3.6	53.6
Overalls and industrial garments	34.0	.55	20.0	27.3	30.9	27.3	16.4	52.7
Women's and misses' dresses	2.6	.63	7.9	54.0	133.3	41.3	41.3	103.2
Work pants, cotton	63.1	.53	13.2	(3)	34.0	22.6	26.4	52.8
Work shirts	69.9	.50	10.0	-----	22.0	22.0	(3)	-----
Paper and allied products (October 1945):								
Corrugated and fiber boxes	12.1	.65	4.6	23.1	26.2	23.1	20.0	46.2
Fiber cans, tubes, and similar products	5.7	.61	16.4	4.9	39.3	18.0	16.4	-----
Folding paper boxes	9.2	.61	14.8	23.0	31.1	31.1	11.5	63.9
Paper mills	15.9	.78	-----	5.3	5.1	5.1	-----	-----
Paperboard mills	38.3	.75	-20.0	5.3	13.3	18.7	-----	33.3
Pulp mills	21.4	.84	(3)	-13.1	(3)	(3)	-----	22.6
Set-up paper boxes	6.0	.54	1.9	14.8	33.3	25.9	16.7	51.9
Textiles, cotton (April 1946):								
Integrated cotton textile mills	82.6	.75	-2.7	8.0	5.3	-----	-----	-----
Cotton textile weaving mills	18.1	.76	-----	34.2	39.5	11.8	-----	-----
Cotton textile yarn mills	91.9	.70	-----	14.3	8.6	-----	-----	-----
Bread and other bakery products (July 1945)	19.2	.59	20.3	28.8	39.0	30.5	23.7	62.7
Cigars (January 1946)	47.4	.73	-12.3	6.8	-----	-1.4	-----	39.7
Footwear (October 1945)	6.4	.65	10.8	43.1	46.2	10.8	1.5	78.5
Hosiery, full-fashioned (January 1946)	43.5	.87	3.4	4.6	24.1	14.9	-----	42.5
Hosiery, seamless (January 1946)	76.1	.62	-11.3	12.9	8.1	16.1	-----	-----
Structural clay products (October 1945)	18.0	.60	36.7	40.0	50.0	36.7	28.3	58.3
Furniture, other than upholstered (October 1945)	38.4	.56	30.4	28.6	39.3	33.9	16.1	67.9
Furniture, upholstered (October 1945)	27.0	.74	6.8	28.4	58.1	25.7	23.0	75.7
<i>Nonmanufacturing</i>								
Retail (April 1945):								
Clothing stores	12.4	.65	6.2	4.6	30.8	26.2	10.8	41.5
Department stores	12.2	.61	-9.8	-4.9	14.8	13.1	6.6	19.7
Limited price variety stores	22.5	.33	15.2	30.3	27.3	30.3	18.2	66.7
Electric light and power (July 1945)	14.3	.87	33.3	20.7	19.5	21.8	3.4	27.6
Power laundries (July 1945)	31.2	.38	34.2	52.6	63.2	55.3	23.7	81.6
Telephones (October 1945)	20.5	.81	14.8	16.0	25.9	12.3	-3.7	17.3

¹ Excludes premium pay for overtime and night work.

² Includes Southeast and Southwest.

³ Insufficient number of workers to justify presentation of an average.

These industries, for the reason already indicated, were excluded from tables 1 and 2.

The significance of the lumber industry in the South can be gaged from the fact that in 1944 approximately a quarter of a million workers found employment in lumbering operations in that region; this represents over half of total employment in the entire industry. In August 1944, the most recent period for which regional data are available, straight-time average hourly earnings of workers in logging camps, sawmills, veneer mills, plywood mills, and cooperage-stock mills were 13 to 53 percent higher in the North as compared with the South. In all branches except veneer and cooperage-stock mills, western wages were more than double those in the South (table 3).⁸ This wide spread between the South and West is a reflection not only of differences in the general wage levels of the two regions but also of the fact that southern lumbering operations are smaller in scale, are less mechanized, and utilize a higher proportion of unskilled workers.

TABLE 3.—*Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings of Workers in the Basic Lumber Industry, by Region, August 1944*¹

Industry branch	West ²	North ³	South ⁴	Percent South is of North
Basic lumber: Total	\$1.18	\$0.73	\$0.52	71
Logging camps	1.37	.81	.53	66
Sawmills	1.04	.69	.51	74
Veneer mills		.62	.49	79
Plywood mills	1.03	.62	.49	79
Cooperage-stock mills		.59	.52	88

¹ Based on selected occupations. See Bulletins No. 854, Wages in the Basic Lumber Industry.

² Includes 3 Pacific Coast States and 8 States in the Rocky Mountain area.

³ Includes Midwest, Great Lakes, Middle Atlantic, and New England regions.

⁴ Includes 9 Southeastern and 4 Southwestern States.

In underground bituminous-coal mines in the fall of 1945, straight-time hourly earnings in northern and southern coal production districts differed very little, contrary to the general pattern in many industries.⁹ However, in both of these regions, earnings were on the whole lower than in the West, where less than 10 percent of the tonnage is produced. Table 4, which presents the wage data for this industry, does not show a single rate for each region because of the difficulty of subdividing coal production districts where boundaries crossed regional lines. For this reason the average earnings for each of the districts in the three regions are shown separately. It will be seen that, although the highest southern earnings (District 7) did not exceed the highest earnings in the North or West, several districts within the South had averages which equaled or exceeded those in the North.

⁸ For a full report of wages in this industry, see Bureau of Labor Statistics, Bulletin No. 854—Wages in the Basic Lumber Industry, 1944.

⁹ A comprehensive (mimeographed) report on wages in this industry is available from the Bureau upon request: Wage Structure of Bituminous Coal Mines, 1945.

In strip mines the spread in earnings between the North and South was noticeably greater than in underground mines. The highest southern strip mining earnings were 12 cents below the highest northern earnings, whereas in underground mines only a 1-cent difference separated the highest district in each of these regions. Strip mining, it may be noted, employs approximately 18,000 workers nationally as against more than 300,000 in underground bituminous mines.

In brief, the pattern of geographical wage differentials in bituminous-coal mining is similar with that observed earlier to the extent that wages in the West are higher than in the North and South. However, this industry varies from the general pattern, in that differences between northern and southern underground mines are considerably less marked.

TABLE 4.—*Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings in Bituminous-Coal Mining, by Coal Production Districts in Three Regions, Fall 1945*¹

[Number in parentheses identifies Coal Production District]

Branch	North ²	South ³	West ⁴	Branch	North ²	South ³
Underground mines..	\$1.12 (10) 1.09 (11) 1.08 (4) 1.07 (2) 1.05 (1) .97 (12)	\$1.11 (7) 1.10 (3) 1.07 (8) 1.05 (6) .95 (14) .91 (9)	\$1.21 (19) 1.18 (20) 1.15 (16) 1.09 (17) ----- .91 (13)	Strip mines.....	\$1.29 (10) 1.27 (2) 1.26 (11) 1.21 (4) 1.07 (1) .78 (12)	\$1.17 (3) 1.14 (7) 1.12 (15) 1.11 (9) .96 (13)
	----- ----- ----- ----- ----- -----	----- ----- ----- ----- ----- -----	----- ----- ----- ----- ----- -----			
	.86 (15)					

¹ Average hourly earnings for each district based on a selected number of occupants.

² Coal Production Districts within the North include *District 1*—Eastern Pennsylvania, *District 2*—Western Pennsylvania, *District 4*—Ohio, *District 10*—Illinois, *District 11*—Indiana, *District 12*—Iowa.

³ Southern Districts include *District 3*—Northern West Virginia, *District 6*—Panhandle of West Virginia, *District 7*—Southern West Virginia, *District 8*—Other West Virginia counties and parts of Virginia, Tennessee, and North Carolina, *District 9*—Counties in Kentucky, *District 13*—Alabama, *District 14*—parts of Oklahoma and Arkansas, *District 15*—Kansas and parts of Oklahoma.

⁴ Western Districts include *District 16*—Northern Colorado, *District 17*—Southern Colorado, *District 19*—Wyoming and Idaho, *District 20*—Utah. For more exact delineation of district boundaries, see *Wage Structure in Bituminous Coal Mines, 1945*.

Wages of southern railroad workers on class I line-haul steam railroads are also lower than elsewhere. Straight-time hourly earnings in 1944 averaged 93.5 cents in the Eastern District, 85.0 cents in the Southern District, and 87.5 cents in the Western District (for the 93 percent of all employees in the industry, on which the Interstate Commerce Commission gives hourly data).¹⁰ It will be observed that

¹⁰ Based on Railway Statistics for 1944 (preliminary), Interstate Commerce Commission. The Eastern District comprises the Great Lakes, Central Eastern, and New England States; the Western District, the entire area west of the Mississippi, and the Southern District, all States east of the Mississippi and below the Eastern District.

With certain minor exceptions, the basic wage rates paid to train and engine service employees have been uniform throughout the United States since 1944. Among other railway employees, usually called the non-operating employees, variations in rates do exist from region to region. Generally the differentials are less in the skilled occupations such as shop mechanics than they are in the unskilled jobs such as section-men and extra gangmen. In the former the regional differentials between the Eastern and Southern Districts are about 1 cent per hour while in the latter occupations the rates in the Southern District are 8 to 10 cents per hour less than in the Eastern District. The Western District tends to pay better rates to unskilled occupations in the Northwest than in the Southwest.

unlike most other industries, workers on western railroads had lower hourly earnings than Eastern District workers; in fact the wage spread between the East and West was greater than that between the South and West.

For the building and printing trades regional wage comparisons are based on average union hourly rates of pay, since data are not available currently on wages paid on all types of jobs, both union and nonunion. In table 5 these rates are shown for only two broad geographic regions but with subdivisions within each region by size of city.

In all but the smallest cities, union rates in July 1945 were lower in the South than in the North. In the smaller cities (40,000 to 100,000 population) journeymen in the building trades averaged the same in both regions, while in book and job printing, union workers in the South had higher rates than workers in the North in cities of this size.

It will also be observed that the North-South differential for skilled journeymen in the building trades was considerably less than for the less skilled helpers and laborers. In the largest southern cities, journeymen's rates were 9 percent below the North while helpers and laborers' rates were 31 percent lower. The differentials for the least skilled jobs were less in the medium and smallest sized cities but even here they exceeded the wage spread for the skilled job.

TABLE 5.—*Average Union Hourly Rates in the Building and Printing Trades by Population Group and Region, July 1945*

Trade	Cities of 250,000-500,000 population			Cities of 100,000-250,000 population			Cities of 40,000-100,000 population		
	North and Pacific (13 cities)	South and Southwest (8 cities)	Percent South is of North	North and Pacific (18 cities)	South and Southwest (7 cities)	Percent South is of North	North and Pacific (7 cities ¹)	South and Southwest (6 cities ¹)	Percent South is of North
Building trades.....	\$1.49	\$1.30	87	\$1.38	\$1.26	91	\$1.31	\$1.19	91
Journeymen.....	1.58	1.44	91	1.48	1.33	90	1.37	1.37	100
Helpers and laborers.....	1.02	.70	69	.93	.67	72	.89	.77	87
Printing trades.....	1.22	1.20	98	1.23	1.13	92	1.15	1.19	103
Book and job.....	1.10	1.08	98	1.14	.96	84	1.02	1.11	109
Newspapers.....	1.48	1.35	91	1.35	1.28	95	1.20	1.25	97

¹ In the printing trades 6 cities were covered in the North and Pacific and 5 cities in the South and Southwest.

Variations in Wages at Various Skill Levels

To answer the questions whether workers on the same general level of skill receive the same straight-time average hourly earnings in all regions or whether there are characteristic geographical differences, three occupations, believed to be fairly representative of the skilled, medium skilled, and least skilled jobs in each industry, were chosen

for analysis.¹¹ For example, for the telephone industry the jobs selected were PBX installers, experienced switchboard operators, and cable splicers' helpers; for the work-shirt industry, the jobs included sewing-machine repairmen, sewing-machine operators, and work distributors; for full-fashioned hosiery, single-unit knitters, toppers, and janitors. This was done for most of the industries shown in table 1.¹² Some industries could not be covered in this manner because occupational data were not available.

Following the procedure used previously, the regions were ranked according to their relative level of straight-time average hourly earnings for each occupation in each industry. The final or average regional wage positions with respect to the three grades of labor are shown below. Rank 1 represents the highest wage level.

	<i>Skilled job</i>	<i>Semiskilled job</i>	<i>Unskilled job</i>
Pacific	1	1	1
Middle Atlantic	2	2	3
Great Lakes	3	3	2
New England	¹ 4	4	4
Border States	¹ 4	5	5
Southwest	6	¹ 7	7
Middle West	7	6	6
Southeast	8	¹ 7	8

¹ Tied with another region for same position.

The Pacific and Southeast rank highest and lowest, respectively, on this basis, just as they did in terms of the level of wages for all workers in each industry. The Southeast, however, was tied with the Southwest for last position in the case of semiskilled jobs, while New England and the Border States were found to be at the same level with respect to skilled jobs. At the upper end of the wage scale, the Middle Atlantic, Great Lakes, and New England also retained the places shown on the basis of all workers. The major change was for the Middle West; although it is fifth in terms of all workers, it has next to the lowest rates for skilled and semiskilled jobs and third lowest in the case of unskilled jobs. The shift indicated is not too significant since, in the ranking of regions on the basis of the over-all averages, the Border States preceded the Middle West by a very small margin.

¹¹ The choice of a single occupation to represent all skilled, semiskilled, or unskilled jobs in an industry, of course, limits the validity of the comparison. The margin of error would have been reduced if the selection of occupations had been based on a detailed study of occupational wage relationships in each industry. The Bureau of Labor Statistics (Wage Analysis Branch) has undertaken such studies, a few of which have already appeared in a series of mimeographed reports entitled, "Occupational Wage Relationships." These studies are now available for machinery, machine-tool accessories, foundries, and electric light and power. For purposes of the present article, it was necessary to choose occupations prior to a detailed study of each industry. For this reason, the chance of error cannot be entirely dismissed.

¹² Owing to space limitations, it is not possible to present the detailed tables containing occupational wage rates for the various industries in each region. This material is, however, available upon request.

The consistency with which the Southeast appeared in a low wage position is evidenced by the fact that in more than half of the industries represented it was lowest in skilled as well as in semiskilled and unskilled jobs.¹³

It is clear from the above that there are characteristic regional wage differences, whether the analysis is made on the basis of all workers or in terms of various skill levels. The Southeast was the lowest wage area from the viewpoint of average wages of skilled and lesser skilled workers and, at the opposite extreme, was the Pacific region, with the highest wages for workers at comparable levels of skill.

WAGE SPREAD BETWEEN SKILLED AND UNSKILLED GRADES

The fact that each region has a characteristic wage position with respect to workers at different skill levels does not necessarily mean that the spread between wages for the highest and lowest grades of work is uniform for all regions even in a single industry. Intra-industry differences are affected not only by the peculiar regional conditions governing the supply of and demand for labor but also by the fact that products manufactured in a single industry are not uniform regionally, the organization of production varies in degree of mechanization and size of operation, and these, in turn, affect the character of the labor force. Within a single industry, also, differences in degree of unionization and methods of wage payment influence not only the general wage level but the relationship of wages among occupations as well.

An analysis of straight-time average hourly earnings of the selected skilled and unskilled job in each of the industries included in this study revealed the following:

(1) Although in all regions the skilled job paid more than the unskilled, the differential in each industry varied from region to region.

(2) On the whole, the wage spread was narrowest in the highest wage region, the Pacific, and widest in the lowest, the Southeast and Southwest.

(3) While the Great Lakes States and New England, two other high wage regions, also showed a narrower skilled-unskilled wage spread than the lowest wage regions, the Middle Atlantic States, second highest in the national wage scale, appeared to have, on the

¹³ While in none of the industries covered did skilled workers in the Southeast show the highest wage rates in the country, in a few industries their rates were above those in New England. Thus, production machinists in the machinery industry earned \$1.06 per hour in the Southeast in January 1945 compared with \$1.02 in New England. Adjusters and fixers of seamless hosiery machinery had an hourly rate of 97 cents and 99 cents in New England and the Southeast, respectively. Back tenders in paper mills held an 8-cent advantage in the Southeast largely because of greater mechanization and higher labor productivity in the southern mills. A similar situation prevailed in pulp mills where digestor operators earned \$1.23 an hour in the Southeast and only 92 cents in New England in October 1945.

average, as wide a differential as the southern regions but for different reasons.

(4) In the Pacific region the comparatively narrow spread was more the result of the relatively high level of unskilled wages than of the position of skilled wages.

(5) In the Middle Atlantic, the opposite situation seemed to prevail, with earnings of skilled workers (compared to the national average in each industry) considerably higher than those of unskilled workers.

(6) In the Southeast, the wages of both groups varied considerably from the national average for each industry, with a somewhat larger difference indicated by the wages of unskilled workers. It is interesting to observe the opposite tendencies in cotton textiles and lumber, the two most important industries in this region. In lumber in 1944 the differential against the South among unskilled workers was considerably greater than among skilled jobs. For example, skilled headrig sawyers in the North had only a 14-percent wage advantage over southern workers in this group; among semiskilled edgermen, the northern differential was 27 percent and for unskilled off-bearers the spread was 30 percent. In cotton textiles, according to a Bureau survey made in April-May 1946, the differential against the South in straight-time average hourly earnings for the least skilled jobs were decidedly smaller than differentials among the skilled jobs. For example, loom fixers, maintenance carpenters, and maintenance electricians earned from 13 to 31 percent more per hour in New England than in the Southeast, whereas among unskilled filling hands, battery hands, and scrubbers and sweepers, the New England advantage did not exceed 8 percent and in some jobs average rates in both regions were identical.

Among the 28 other industries examined in the Southeast, 15 showed that the differential between average hourly earnings in this region and the national average was greater for the unskilled than for the skilled job; for the remaining 13 industries the opposite relationship seemed to prevail. It will be observed from table 6 that all 5 garment industries had a larger differential for skilled workers, whereas in the metalworking industries the spread was greatest for the unskilled. The two branches of the hosiery industry showed different relationships. In the full-fashioned branch the differential was larger for skilled workers, while in seamless hosiery the national average was equalled for the skilled job but fell short by 2 percent in the case of the unskilled job.

In brief, although the difference between skilled and unskilled wages in the Southeast was in general affected to a greater extent by the low wages of unskilled workers, in a significant number of industries skilled wages showed a greater deviation from the national average

than did unskilled wages. It is highly probable that the situation observed in 1945-46 represents a considerable change from the prewar situation because of the fact that wages of the lowest paid workers in many industries during the war tended to rise faster than those of the more highly skilled.

TABLE 6.—*Percent Southeast Average Straight-time Hourly Earnings Are of United States Averages for Selected Skilled and Unskilled Jobs in 28 Industries*

Industry	Skilled job	Unskilled job	Industry	Skilled job	Unskilled job
Ferrous foundries	70	63	Women's and misses dresses	43	72
Nonferrous foundries	71	70	Men's and boys' dress shirts	73	86
Power laundries	85	79	Overall and industrial garments	83	85
Footwear, other than rubber	86	85	Work pants	85	91
Electric light and power	87	81	Work shirts	87	96
Limited price variety stores	89	88	Sheet metal	87	89
Clothing stores	78	73	Pulp mills	100	127
Machinery, miscellaneous	89	69	Structural clay products	69	74
Paperboard mills	92	79	Bakeries	71	78
Fabricated structural steel	93	72	Telephone	72	99
Upholstered wood furniture	92	88	Wood furniture, not upholstered	82	91
Department stores	96	77	Cigars	82	94
Power boilers	98	74	Full-fashioned hosiery	86	92
Seamless hosiery	100	98			
Paper mills	102	83			

Some Conditions Affecting Southern Wages

The low-wage level of the South is accounted for in large measure by the predominance of agriculture and the relatively large supply of unskilled labor competing for jobs in comparatively few industries. Other important factors include a large population relative to employment opportunities, decentralization of industry, comparative lack of unionization, and limited degree of protective-labor legislation by the States.

Changes in these underlying conditions act to alter the southern wage level. The growth of industry, which received considerable impetus during the war, exerts an upward pull on wages, depending upon the interaction of such factors as the natural rate of population increase in the South, labor displacement in agriculture, migration out of the region, and the rapidity of southern industrial development. The extension of unionization and the raising of the legal minimum wage also contribute toward the establishment of a higher wage level. The prewar 40-cent minimum wage has already been rendered obsolete in many industries by war and postwar wage changes, bringing rates above this minimum.

A strong downward pull on the southern wage level may be exerted as a result of an accelerated growth in the number of workers looking for industrial jobs. This could be effected, for example, by a great displacement of agricultural workers if cotton harvesting and other

farm operations were generally more mechanized.¹⁴ If such a revolutionary technological development is not accompanied by a large increase in the industrial and related demand for labor, the pressure on the southern nonagricultural wage level could be considerable. One offsetting factor, of course, would be the extent to which the size of the southern labor force was affected by out-migration.

This brief indication of a few of the many elements that enter into wage determination is sufficient to reveal the complexities of the problem and the difficulties involved in anticipating what the southern wage level—or that of any region—is likely to be in the future in relation to other areas.

¹⁴ See Peter F. Drucker: *Exit King Cotton* (in Harper's Magazine, May 1946, pp. 473-480).

IV—Living Costs in Large Cities in the South¹

FROM the outbreak of war in Europe until June 1946, retail prices of goods and services used by moderate-income families rose more rapidly in most large cities in the South² than the national average for large cities in the United States. Increased industrial activity and concentrations of military establishments in the South during the war gave rise to sharp advances in consumers' prices in southern cities, large and small. Living costs are still somewhat lower in southern cities, however, than costs in a number of northern cities, but the differences are not as great as they were before the war.

Long before the United States entered World War II, the South was beginning to assume a new role in the American economy. It became evident after the beginning of the war that the South was to become an important training center for the armies of the United States and to contribute mightily to the rearming of the Nation. As large military installations were established and production facilities were multiplied many times over, families of soldiers and war workers flocked into many southern cities. Population increases were tremendous. Between 1940 and 1944, 313,000 additional residents settled in the Hampton Roads area in Virginia, an increase of 91 percent over 1940; Mobile's population increased by 68 percent; and Charleston's, 57 percent. Communities that had but small excess capacity to accommodate additional population found their normal population increase of 10 years appearing overnight. Housing shortages immediately became severe, vacancies disappeared, and the pressures for higher rentals and prices of scarce goods accumulated week by week. New residents had to have housing and household goods, food, clothing, hospital care, dental services, and many other living essentials. As areas became more congested³ the prices of living essentials rose sharply in both large and small southern cities.

Between August 1939 and June 1946, consumers' prices of goods and services used by moderate-income city families advanced more rapidly in 7 of the 10 largest cities in the South than the national average for the 34 large cities usually surveyed for this purpose by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Savannah, Jacksonville, New Orleans, and Norfolk—heavy shipbuilding centers—and Birmingham—the

¹ Prepared by Floyd C. Mann, of the Bureau's Prices and Cost of Living Branch.

² The South is defined here as including Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Kentucky, Tennessee, Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas.

³ One measure of the impact of the war on southern cities is the number of southern cities designated as "congested areas" by the President's Committee for Congested Production Areas. Eight of the 15 production areas defined as congested were in the South. These were Charleston, S. C.; Mobile, Ala.; Brunswick, Ga.; Key West, Fla.; Hampton Roads, Va.; Knoxville, Tenn.; Pascagoula, Miss.; and Beaumont, Tex.

steel city of the South—were among the cities showing the largest increases. In Savannah and Jacksonville, consumers' prices rose more between the outset of war in Europe and June 1946 than in any other city surveyed, 41.6 and 40.5 percent, respectively. Retail prices in Memphis and Atlanta also advanced more rapidly than the national average; prices in Mobile increased only slightly less than the 34-city average. In Houston and Richmond—two cities on the edge of the South—the rises in prices were among the smallest for all large cities in the United States between August 1939 and June 1946. Table 1 shows the rise in consumers' prices in 34 large cities ranked by percentage change between August 1939 and June 1946. There is a difference of 12 percentage points between the southern city having the largest rise during this period and the southern city having the smallest rise.

TABLE 1.—*Rise in Consumers' Prices in Large Cities, Ranked by Percentage Change Between August 1939 and June 1946*

City	Percent of increase, August 1939 to June 1946	City	Percent of increase, August 1939 to June 1946
Savannah, Ga.	41.6	Philadelphia, Pa.	35.5
Jacksonville, Fla.	40.5	Los Angeles, Calif.	35.4
Portland, Oreg.	40.2	Milwaukee, Wis.	35.3
San Francisco, Calif.	38.8	Average of 34 large cities:	35.2
Birmingham, Ala.	38.6	Mobile, Ala.	34.8
Detroit, Mich.	38.5	Buffalo, N. Y.	34.6
New Orleans, La.	38.4	Indianapolis, Ind.	34.6
Norfolk, Va.	38.2	St. Louis, Mo.	33.7
Manchester, N. H.	37.7	Denver, Colo.	33.6
Scranton, Pa.	37.7	Chicago, Ill.	32.6
Memphis, Tenn.	37.5	Portland, Maine.	32.5
Baltimore, Md.	37.4	Boston, Mass.	31.7
New York, N. Y.	37.2	Kansas City, Mo.	31.2
Pittsburgh, Pa.	36.9	Richmond, Va.	30.8
Seattle, Wash.	36.6	Minneapolis, Minn.	29.8
Atlanta, Ga.	36.5	Houston, Tex.	29.6
Cincinnati, Ohio.	35.9		
Cleveland, Ohio.	35.7		
Washington, D. C.	35.7		

Consumers' prices have risen less in Houston than in other large cities because of a smaller rise in the costs of food and clothing and a decline of almost 7 percent in fuel, electricity, and ice costs. Gas and electricity rates have dropped sharply in Houston since the fall of 1939. Meat prices have not risen as rapidly in Richmond as in most other large cities. This, combined with a less than average rise in residential rents, has resulted in Richmond being 1 of the 3 cities with smallest increases during the period.

Further evidence of the rapid rise of consumers' prices in the South as compared with other areas can be obtained from special surveys of prices in 13 small southern cities and war production centers conducted by the Bureau of Labor Statistics during the war.

period. Between mid-1940 and early 1945, the earliest and latest dates for which indexes are available for all 13 cities, prices advanced more rapidly than the national average in all but 1, and in 8, prices rose from 6 to 13 percentage points more than the average for the 34 large cities. Increases ranged from 25 percent in Stillwater, Okla., to 39 percent in Vicksburg, Miss., while during the same period—June 15, 1940, to March 15, 1945—consumers' prices rose only 26 percent on the average in 34 large cities throughout the United States. The second part of table 2 shows percentage changes in consumers' prices in selected southern cities for all items combined and each major group from mid-1940 to the spring of 1945.

Food prices, which represent approximately two-fifths of the moderate-income city families' budget, increased more rapidly in most southern cities than the national average for 34 large cities. Seven of the 10 largest cities had increases greater than the national average for the 7-year period August 1939 to June 1946; in 12 of the 13 selected southern cities and war production centers the increase in food prices between 1940 and 1945 was more than the average rise for all large cities.

Food prices in the South rose rapidly during the fall of 1941 and the early months of 1942 prior to the establishment of the General Maximum Price Regulation in May 1942. After that, further increases in the prices of uncontrolled items pushed the level of food prices to a wartime high in May 1940, before the President's "hold-the-line" order checked the advance. From that date through June 1946 food prices on the average remained stable. With the temporary removal of subsidies and price controls in mid-1946, food prices rose more in Atlanta and New Orleans between June 15 and July 15 than the national advance of 13.8 percent. For the other 8 large southern cities, the advance ranged from 9.3 percent in Mobile to 13.7 percent in Memphis.

Food shortages became progressively more severe in all large cities in the fall of 1944, and in the spring months of 1945 and 1946, but supplies in large southern cities were consistently smaller than in other regions. To some extent these shortages reflected the failure of distributors to alter their distribution of supplies in accordance with the shifts in population. From February 1943 through November 1945, the Bureau of Labor Statistics made surveys of food supplies in independent stores in 56 large cities. Throughout most of this period, food supplies were less adequate in the large cities in the Southeastern States than in any other region in the United States. In the spring of 1945, it was not uncommon to find 85 to 90 percent or more of the independent stores regularly visited without any meat.

The increase in clothing prices in southern cities, large and small, was less than the average rise for 34 large cities during the war. Increases ranged from 49 percent in Houston to 56 percent in New Orleans between August 1939 and June 1946, as compared with a national average of 57 percent. Between June 1940 and March 1945, clothing costs in Vicksburg and Goldsboro advanced almost as much as the national average (41 percent). In all other selected southern cities and war production centers, clothing prices rose less rapidly. About two-thirds of the rise in clothing prices in the South occurred before May 1943. However, continued shortages and the disappearance of lower price lines have been reflected in the steady advances in clothing costs since May 1943.

TABLE 2.—*Consumers' Price Changes in Large and Small Southern Cities and War Production Centers, August 1939 to June 1946 and June 1940 to March 1945*

City	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
Percent of change August 15, 1939, to June 15, 1946							
Large southern cities:							
Savannah, Ga.	+41.6	+63.9	+54.9	+11.3	+11.8	+71.8	+33.6
Jacksonville, Fla.	+40.5	+57.4	+49.5	+10.5	+22.6	+51.5	+40.0
Birmingham, Ala.	+38.6	+62.8	+53.1	+10.0	+21.7	+50.0	+28.0
New Orleans, La.	+38.4	+61.5	+56.2	+4.8	+7.7	+41.2	+24.7
Norfolk, Va.	+38.2	+56.0	+52.0	+7.7	+23.8	+55.5	+33.6
Memphis, Tenn.	+37.5	+71.2	+53.5	+10.5	+12.1	+38.9	+20.2
Atlanta, Ga.	+36.5	+52.4	+53.5	+3.2	+19.8	+58.6	+37.5
Mobile, Ala.	+34.8	+56.9	+52.6	+9.8	+9.6	+43.4	+20.8
Richmond, Va.	+30.8	+50.1	+50.9	+1.5	+13.4	+52.8	+22.1
Houston, Tex.	+29.6	+47.2	+48.9	+2.2	-6.8	+46.9	+26.4
Average of 34 large cities	+35.2	+55.7	+56.7	+4.0	+13.3	+55.2	+27.4
Percent of change, June 15, 1940, to March 15, 1945							
Other selected southern cities and war production centers:							
Vicksburg, Miss.	+38.8	+73.4	+40.4	+6.8	+12.7	+24.1	+30.3
Gadsden, Ala. ¹	+37.6	+65.4	+38.0	+10.2	+27.1	+35.7	+29.0
Corpus Christi, Tex. ²	+36.5	+61.0	+34.9	+6.8	-3.8	+46.2	+35.8
Jonesboro, Ark.	+36.3	+70.2	+33.3	+5.1	+8.0	+43.7	+30.1
Knoxville, Tenn. ³	+34.0	+62.8	-	+3.5	+11.8	-	-
Chester, S. C.	+33.5	+67.0	+35.7	+7.4	+8.6	+37.2	+15.8
Goldsboro, N. C.	+32.8	+47.3	+40.9	+5.1	+5.6	+52.1	+34.7
Newport News, Va. ⁴	+31.9	+56.6	+32.4	+4.9	+11.4	+30.2	+24.3
Little Rock, Ark. ⁴	+28.3	+42.8	-	+12.4	+15.5	-	-
Dallas, Tex. ⁴	+27.9	+46.7	-	+3.1	-1.5	-	-
Louisville, Ky. ^{4,5}	+27.0	+37.2	-	+8.4	+9.0	-	-
Charleston, S. C. ⁴	+26.5	+39.4	+27.0	+12.7	+11.8	+16.4	+26.7
Stillwater, Okla.	+25.0	+47.3	+37.0	-1.4	0	+37.8	+19.8
Average of 34 large cities	+26.2	+38.3	+41.3	+3.5	+11.6	+44.4	+22.9

¹ Change to March 1946.

² Change to May 1946.

³ Changes from June 15, 1940, to April 15, 1945.

⁴ Estimated, based on changes in food, rent, gas, and electricity costs in this city, and on changes in other costs in large cities in U. S.

⁵ Changes from October 15, 1940, to March 15, 1945.

⁶ Changes from September 15, 1940, to March 15, 1945.

Residential rents rose more sharply in most large and small cities in the South than in all large cities in the Nation. Rents in 34 large cities combined advanced 4 percent on the average between the outset of war in Europe and June 1945; increases were greater than this in 7

of the 10 large southern cities, and in the heavy industry cities of Birmingham, Jacksonville, Memphis, and Savannah they advanced more than 10 percent. In Atlanta, Houston, and Richmond the increases in rents were less than the national average. Ten of the thirteen selected southern cities and war production centers had increases in residential rents greater than the national average from mid-1940 to March 1945. In Charleston, one of the most important shipbuilding centers of the South, rents jumped 12.7 percent during the 5-year period 1940 to 1945.

At the outset of war in Europe, southern cities in comparison with many large northern cities had a relatively small reserve of housing to accommodate additional population. The tremendous influx of war workers and their families in a wartime boom of employment quickly exhausted the small excess capacity that was available and augmented the pressures on already heavily strained facilities. The characteristics of the population increase in southern cities during the war were also significantly different from what would be expected under normal conditions, and these differences tended to intensify the congestion problem. Heavy Negro migration into urban areas that were lacking adequate housing accommodations in 1940 compounded the overcrowding. A marked increase in the proportion of women in the southern cities also caused a greater strain than would otherwise have been the case. The range of housing accommodations acceptable to women is narrower than it is for men.

Residential rents rose rapidly in the early part of the war until rent controls were imposed and rents were rolled back to their 1941 or 1942 maximum rent dates. Birmingham, Jacksonville, Mobile, and the Norfolk area—all shipbuilding centers—were among the first cities in the Nation for which controls were established. Prior to the date at which the areas were brought under control, rents rose sharply for all types of housing, but the greatest increases were for those renting to whites at less than \$30 per month and for those occupied by non-white tenants.

One measure of the severity of the housing shortage in the South during the war was the amount of public and private construction of housing for war workers that was allowed by a Nation conserving building materials for only the most essential needs. Between July 1, 1940, and September 30, 1945, Mobile and Norfolk increased their total dwellings by about 45 and 37 percent, respectively. During the same period, the total number of family accommodations completed with priority assistance in Savannah and Jacksonville amounted to 19 and 13 percent of their prewar housing facilities. Relatively large numbers of dwellings were also added in Atlanta, Houston, and New Orleans.

Contract monthly rents for tenant-occupied, privately financed residential dwellings rose sharply in many southern cities between the Census of Housing in April 1940 and the National Housing Agency dwelling surveys in 1945. The following tabulation shows the percentage increase in average monthly contract rents between 1940 and 1945 for a selected list of southern cities.⁴

	Survey date	Percent of increase, April 1940 to survey date
Pine Bluff, Ark.	May 1945	136
Charleston, S. C.	April 1946	131
Brownsville, Tex.	August 1945	130
Mobile, Ala.	May 1945	66
Little Rock, Ark.	April 1946	46
Newport News, Va.	December 1945	46
Portsmouth, Va.	December 1945	38
Louisville, Ky.	November 1945	33
Knoxville, Tenn.	November 1945	28
Dallas, Tex.	May 1945	24
Norfolk, Va.	December 1945	22
New Orleans, La.	June-July 1945	17
Houston, Tex.	November 1945	16

These percentage changes are based on the average contract monthly rent for rental dwellings at the time of each survey. They reflect in addition to changes in rents shown in the consumers' price index, changes in the size and type of dwellings, and changes in the services and household equipment included in the contract rent.

Statistics on the number of evictions from tenant dwellings show that there was no significant difference between the South and North in 1944 and June 1946. In spite of this fact, however, the problem was more acute in the South because of the intensity of the congestion in southern cities.

There were great increases in the number of dwellings occupied by owners throughout the United States during the war but the largest change in the proportion of owner-occupied dwellings between April 1940 and early 1945 occurred in the Southeastern States where the increase was 34 percent compared with 28 percent for 122 cities throughout the United States.

Changes in fuel, electricity, and ice costs varied sharply among the large and small southern cities during the war. In general, gas and electricity rates declined throughout the country and the South was no exception. Gas and electricity costs, which have more than usual importance in the budgets of families living in Houston, Corpus Christi, and Dallas, declined enough to cause an average decrease for

⁴ The rental data presented in this tabulation are not comparable with the figures on changes in rents given in table 2 of this article. The figures given in table 2 are based on the Bureau of Labor Statistics consumers' price index which reflects changes in rent charged for the same dwelling with the same services and facilities.

the fuel, electricity, and ice group in these cities since the beginning of the war. These costs, taken as a group, rose on the average for all other cities surveyed except for Stillwater, Okla., where they remained unchanged.

On the average, housefurnishings costs in the southern cities have risen less than the national average during the war, but miscellaneous goods and services costs in the South increased more than the average rise for 34 large cities combined.

City-to-City Comparisons

The over-all costs of equivalent goods, rents, and services important in the budgets of moderate-income families are slightly lower on the average in the large cities of the South than in other large cities throughout the country. The differences, however, are not great. Variations in costs among cities of the same size within the same region are greater than any differences found between regions. Relative differences in the cost of equivalent goods and services in the 33 large cities for which comparable figures are available for March 1945 are shown in table 3.

Living costs in the large cities in the South ranged from 88 to 95 percent as great as in Washington, D. C. (taken as the base or 100). Food prices were generally higher in southern cities than in Washington, but the cost of clothing, miscellaneous goods and services, and particularly housing was considerably lower in the southern cities than in Washington. Variations in requirements owing to climate were taken into account in making these comparisons. Thus, lower housing costs in southern cities are attributable in part to the smaller quantities of fuel needed for house heating and differences in requirements of heavy and light clothing also have some effect on comparative clothing costs.

Comparisons of March 1945 and prewar living costs show that the relative differences in the costs of equivalent goods, rents, and services in large cities in the South and in other large cities of the United States have been reduced.

The March 1945 comparisons show smaller percentage differences in costs among individual cities than indicated by estimates for the prewar years. Costs in nearly all of the large southern cities have moved up in relation to costs in Washington during this period. In the 8 southern cities for which data are available costs were 5 to 12 percent lower than in Washington; whereas in 1939 costs in these cities were from 10 to 15 percent below Washington. This tendency toward equalizing differences in costs is consistent with the greater

rise in wartime prices in cities—particularly in the South—where costs were relatively low before the war.

The cost of identical food items in southern cities ranged from 98 percent of the Washington cost in Houston to 104 percent in Jacksonville and New Orleans. With the exception of Houston, where food costs were 2 percent lower, retail prices of identical foods were higher in all of the southern cities surveyed than in Washington in March 1945. Costs of equivalent clothing, however, ranged from 6 to 14 percent lower in the cities in the South than in Washington.

TABLE 3.—*Relative Differences in Cost of Equivalent Goods, Rents, and Services in Large Cities in the South and Other Selected Large Cities, March 1945*

[Costs in Washington, D. C.=100]

City	Total	Identical foods	Equivalent clothing	Housing: Average rental for 4- and 5-room dwellings with standard facilities; fuel, utilities, and housefurnishings ¹	Other ²
				100	
Washington, D. C.	100	100	100	100	100
Large cities in the South:					
Houston, Tex.	88	98	86	68	94
New Orleans, La.	91	104	89	66	101
Savannah, Ga.	92	106	90	73	96
Birmingham, Ala.	92	102	89	75	96
Norfolk, Va.	93	102	94	73	99
Memphis, Tenn.	93	101	91	80	97
Jacksonville, Fla.	93	104	90	76	96
Atlanta, Ga.	93	101	92	78	95
Richmond, Va.	95	100	93	87	94
Other large cities surveyed:					
Scranton, Pa.	90	100	97	67	97
Kansas City, Mo.	91	102	97	71	97
Buffalo, N. Y.	92	102	95	71	97
Indianapolis, Ind.	92	99	87	79	94
Baltimore, Md.	93	103	97	76	96
Cincinnati, Ohio	93	100	99	74	99
Denver, Colo.	93	102	93	76	98
Manchester, N. H.	93	103	96	73	98
Los Angeles, Calif.	94	102	90	71	107
Minneapolis, Minn.	94	101	96	81	96
Philadelphia, Pa.	94	103	96	77	98
Cleveland, Ohio	95	101	100	75	103
St. Louis, Mo.	95	102	89	83	98
Boston, Mass.	96	104	91	84	98
Detroit, Mich.	97	102	96	79	105
Milwaukee, Wis.	97	100	93	85	104
Pittsburgh, Pa.	97	102	104	81	102
Portland, Maine	97	103	95	83	101
Portland, Oreg.	97	103	90	75	111
Chicago, Ill.	98	103	96	84	104
San Francisco, Calif.	100	105	97	80	112
New York, N. Y.	102	104	97	93	106
Seattle, Wash.	103	109	96	83	117

¹ Includes rents for 4- and 5-room dwellings with standard facilities—kitchen with sink, hot and cold running water, private bath, electric lighting, and installed heating equipment—and relative costs of fuel, utilities, and housefurnishings. Dwellings reported as needing major repairs or located in neighborhoods containing specified hazards or nuisances were not included in the comparisons. This concept of comparable rental costs does not take account of differences in the supply of rental housing that would meet these standard specifications or in the availability of such housing for rent. Thus, in some cities there are many homes without indoor plumbing, and the proportion of homes with standard facilities is small. No account is taken of this fact.

² Medical care, personal care, recreation, transportation, automobiles, and durable goods. The effect of differences in prices of automobiles, mechanical refrigerators, and other durable equipment not available for pricing in March 1945 is estimated by assuming a continuation of prewar differentials in costs of these items.

Housing costs, which are based on average rents for dwellings with standard facilities and relative costs of fuel, utilities, and housefurnishings, were below the Washington level in all southern cities surveyed. Housing costs were lowest in New Orleans, where they were 34 percent below Washington in March 1945; they were 32 percent lower in Houston, and 23 percent lower in Savannah and Norfolk.

Other costs, which include medical care, personal care, recreation, transportation, automobiles, and durable goods, were below those in Washington in practically all southern cities.

V—State Labor Legislation in the South¹

THE purpose of this article is to summarize briefly the principal provisions of labor laws now on the statute books of 13 Southern States.² No effort has been made to trace historically the development of labor legislation in the South. However, State action in this field did not become a vital issue in the region until about 1900, when interest in child labor legislation began to develop. The first child labor laws in the South were passed in 1903. Laws limiting the hours of labor of women in industry date, roughly, from 1909, and the beginnings of workmen's compensation legislation are found a few years later.

For many years, private organizations, groups of officials charged with administration of labor laws, and trade-unions have worked toward securing agreement on what constitutes adequate protection under labor laws. One of these groups is the International Association of Governmental Labor Officials—an organization of State administrators of labor law. A second is the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions, which gives consideration to problems in the field of workmen's compensation. A third group, composed of labor law administrators and representatives of labor organizations appointed by the Governors of the States, called into annual conference by the United States Secretary of Labor for the past 12 years, has reached agreement on matters of policy and administration of labor laws.

The general thinking of these various groups is represented in a declaration of the Fifth National Conference on Labor Legislation. Every State, according to the recommendation of the conference, should have a department of labor under a full-time commissioner or commission to enforce its labor laws properly. The administration of all laws relating to labor should be centralized in such a department; its administrator should have authority to protect the safety and health of workers. The labor department should be provided with an adequate appropriation and with a trained and competent inspection staff selected on a merit basis to administer all its laws. The report further recommended that the labor laws of every State should make provision for at least the following: For all workers, compulsory workmen's compensation for accidents and occupational diseases; unemployment insurance; wage and hour standards; provision for prompt and regular wage payment and for the collection

¹ Prepared by Charles F. Sharkey and Marian L. Mel, of the Division of Labor Standards, U. S. Department of Labor.

² The States are Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, and Virginia.

of unpaid wages by the labor department; and adequate child labor standards. In addition, the suggested labor code should make provision for public employment agencies and for the regulation of private employment agencies; for the control of industrial home work; and for machinery to handle industrial disputes by State mediation and voluntary arbitration boards and by State labor relations boards.

No State fully meets these recommendations. Over the entire country there is the widest possible variation in the number and effectiveness of the labor laws which have been adopted. The recommended standards are here included because they provide, in a sense, a model code against which the actual development of labor legislation in these or in any other States may be examined.

State Labor Departments

All the Southern States, except Mississippi, have labor departments. In most of these States, however, some labor laws are administered by agencies outside such departments. In Alabama and Louisiana, for example, the workmen's compensation acts are administered by the courts. Agencies separate from the labor departments also administer workmen's compensation in Arkansas, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Texas, and Virginia. In this same group of States and in Tennessee, unemployment compensation is administered by separate agencies. The employment service is within the departments of labor only in Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, and Louisiana. Coordination of administrative activity in the field of labor legislation clearly has not been fully achieved in the group of States under consideration.

No picture of the protection offered workers is complete without including the facts as to the size of the labor department appropriations, the extent of its staff, and other matters concerning administration which are not included in this article. Nevertheless, as the enactment of laws is basic in the protection of workers, a general picture of the status of labor legislation in any State may be gained by the following discussion of specific types of labor laws.

Hours of Work

The National Conferences on Labor Legislation recommend that all workers be protected as to working hours, suggesting, as a reasonable standard, an 8-hour day and a 40-hour week. Even in the war period of urgently needed production, nine Government agencies, including the War and Navy Departments, recommended that hours of work be kept as far as possible to 8 a day, 48 a week, and 6 days a week, as a means of insuring maximum efficiency. Limiting hours of work by

requiring that increased hourly rates be paid after a basic number (daily and weekly) is the method employed not only in the Fair Labor Standards (Wage and Hour) Act and in the Public Contracts (Walsh-Healey) Act, but also in some State laws and in orders issued under authority of minimum wage acts.

None of the 13 Southern States has legislation for an 8-hour day, 48-hour, 6-day week with a broad coverage. Here, as in other sections of the country, limitations of hours for men are applied most commonly to occupations in which danger either to the worker or to the public is involved, as in the case of miners, railroad employees, or motorbus drivers. The employment of women is more generally covered.

Alabama does not regulate the hours of adults. An Arkansas law fixes a basic 8-hour day and 6-day week, with a requirement for overtime pay for women over 16 in practically all occupations. In Florida, any employee, in the absence of a written contract, is entitled to extra pay for all hours in excess of 10 a day. A Georgia law limits the hours of employees in cotton and woolen manufacturing establishments to 10 a day and 60 a week, with the exception of specific occupations. In Kentucky, a 10-hour day, 60-hour week applies to females in a fairly comprehensive list of employments, and the same standard covers all females under 21 in any gainful occupation except domestic service and nursing. A basic 8-hour day, 40-hour week on public works, with time and a half the prevailing wage rate for overtime, is the only regulation of hours applying to men. A Louisiana act of 1942 has an 8-hour day, 48-hour, 6-day week for females in a comprehensive list of industries; women in occupations not covered by this act are limited to a 9-hour day, 54-hour week.

In Mississippi, a 10-hour day, 60-hour week is the standard for females in any occupation, and the same provision exists for persons 16 years of age and over in mills and factories; in both cases overtime is permitted in case of emergency. A limit of 9 hours in 12, 48 hours a week, and 6 days a week in North Carolina protects only female workers of employers of more than 8 persons in any occupation; specifically exempted, however, are a large number of employments. Men are quite comprehensively covered by a 10-hour day, 56-hour week.

In Oklahoma, a 9-hour day, 54-hour week is limited to females in a comprehensive list of employments, with exemption of establishments employing less than 5 such workers in towns of less than 5,000.

South Carolina limits hours of females in mercantile establishments to 12 a day, 60 a week. Employees of cotton, silk, rayon, or woolen textile mills (with a number of exceptions) are covered by an 8-hour day, 40-hour, 5-day week. Enforcement of this law was at one time enjoined; but according to the commissioner of labor, the injunction

has been dissolved. Tennessee limits women's hours in a number of occupations to 57 a week; Texas, to 9 a day, 54 a week. In Virginia, a 9-hour day, 48-hour week is limited to women in laundries, restaurants, and mercantile and manufacturing establishments.

DAY OF REST

Louisiana and North Carolina have laws requiring a weekly day of rest limited to women in enumerated industries. The South Carolina act establishes a 5-day week for employees in textile mills, and in Arkansas a permit must be obtained from the labor commissioner to work on the seventh day. Meal or rest periods of varying lengths are found in Arkansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, and North Carolina, applying generally to women or to women and minors.

Minimum Wage

Since the first minimum wage law was passed 34 years ago (1912), State minimum wage legislation has been enacted in 26 States, Alaska, the District of Columbia, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico. In only 4 States (Connecticut, Massachusetts, New York, and Rhode Island) and in Hawaii and Puerto Rico does the legislation cover men.

Minimum wage laws are of three types. One authorizes the department of labor, or a specified agency within it, to establish minimum wage rates recommended by wage boards. The second type establishes a minimum wage in the law itself. A third kind, an example of which is the law of Hawaii, follows the pattern of the Fair Labor Standards Act; the law establishes a specific minimum hourly rate and basic hours, with provision for increased hourly overtime rates, and provides for subsequent increases of the statutory minimum, based on wage-board action.

Traditionally, workers in service industries have been among the lower paid groups. As these are intrastate employments, no relief is offered by the Fair Labor Standards Act. On this situation, the Commissioner of Labor and Industry of Virginia commented in the biennial report issued in 1944:

The adoption of minimum wage legislation on State level will prove of untold benefit in the postwar period to workers who do not have the protection of the Federal Fair Labor Standards Act. The responsibility for the protection of workers in intrastate occupations is with the State, and if this responsibility is not assumed through State legislation their well-being will be seriously jeopardized. By neglecting to provide this protection for its citizens who are working without any protective wage contracts, the State will retard its social and economic progress, as employment under substandard remunerations reduces the standards of living and tends to involve the entire commonwealth in a downward spiral. Employees of industries engaged in interstate commerce have Federal legislative protection which prevents their wages being cut below a certain minimum

standard. Why should not intrastate occupations be covered by wage orders? It can be expected that the transition from a war to a peace economy will be accompanied by a critical unemployment figure which will reduce the standard of living and decrease the demands for consumer goods. When this economic calamity attacks our wage structure, the States with minimum wage laws will be able to throw a life preserver to the marginal workers and will thus prevent wage cutting below health subsistence. Virginia should have a minimum wage law of general coverage.

Four, among the Southern States studied—Arkansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, and Oklahoma—have enacted minimum wage laws, and they apply to women or to women and minors. The Arkansas law, passed in 1915, applicable to women only, with specific industry coverage, establishes a statutory minimum wage of \$1.25 a day for experienced workers. The minimum rate for workers with less than 6 months' experience is \$1.00 a day. Time and a half pay is required after a basic 8-hour day and basic 6-day week.

In Kentucky, a minimum wage law of the wage-board type applies to women and minors. Under this authority a blanket order, covering all industries except laundry and dry cleaning and dyeing, provides for minimum wage rates ranging from 20 to 25 cents an hour, according to zone. A separate laundry, dry cleaning, and dyeing order establishes rates ranging, according to zone, from 20 to 28 cents an hour. A hotel and restaurant order passed subsequently to the blanket order provides for rates ranging from 20 to 30 cents an hour. Each order provides for payment of overtime rates.

The Louisiana law, which is also of the wage-board type, applies to women and girls. Although the legislation was enacted in 1938, no minimum wage orders have been issued to put the law into effect.

The Oklahoma law, also of the wage-board type, was written to cover men, women, and minors. The law has been declared unconstitutional as to its coverage of men and boys, owing to a defect in the title. Enforcement of the orders for women is prevented by injunction, so that the law is inoperative.

All four laws exclude agriculture; the Kentucky and Louisiana laws exclude domestic service. In Kentucky, persons subject to regulation by the public service commission, and in Louisiana, municipalities having a population of 10,000 or less, are not covered by the minimum wage acts.

Industrial Home Work

Only two States—Tennessee and Texas—in this group have home-work laws.

Tennessee's law neither prohibits home work nor authorizes the department of labor to do so. Homes where specified kinds of work

are performed must be reported to the board of health. Certain requirements are established with respect to cleanliness, light, and ventilation, and workplaces are subject to the supervision of the bureau of workshop and factory inspection. No licensing of employers is required, nor of home workers except in the case of minors under 16 years. Without licensing, enforcement is impossible.

Texas has a home-work law, though not under the jurisdiction of the department of labor. Authority is given to the State Board of Health to investigate any industry, and upon finding that industrial home work cannot be continued without injuring the health and welfare of the home workers, the board may prohibit home work in the industry. This law was passed in 1937, but by September 1946 no steps had been taken by the health department to put it into effect.

Under the home-work system, goods are given out by an employer to workers who perform one or more processes in their own homes and return the finished goods to the employer. The home worker usually furnishes the sewing machine or other equipment, collects and returns the materials, and is sometimes even charged for spoilage. The piece-rate method of payment prevails and low wages are universal. Long hours, night work, and the use of children of all ages are characteristic of industrial home work. Under these conditions, wage and hour and child labor laws become meaningless. Home work, therefore, represents an unfair type of competition to be met by the enlightened employer who has all his work performed in the factory, meets the obligations of law, and pays all overhead costs of production.

Conferences of home-work administrators have repeatedly recommended one of two courses of action: first, that States which do not have home work should, by law, make it impossible for the system to be introduced; in other States, legislation should empower the department of labor to prohibit home work, industry by industry. The few workers who, on account of age or disability, could never adjust themselves to factory work, may be permitted to continue working under certification by the proper administrative agency.

Wage Payment and Wage Collection Laws

Florida and Mississippi have no wage payment laws. A semi-monthly pay day in Alabama applies only to employees of public service corporations engaged in transportation and employing 50 or more persons.

An Arkansas law requires a semimonthly pay day for employees of corporations; a second law forbids use of scrip or other token not payable on the next regular pay day; a third statute provides that employees of every company and corporation shall be paid on the day of discharge.

In Georgia, wages must be paid semimonthly in lawful money or check; excepted from the law are farming and sawmill and turpentine industries. The Kentucky semimonthly pay-day law applies to employees of corporations organized for profit; wages must be paid within 3 days to workers who are discharged or who quit. Another law requires employers of 20 or more persons to redeem scrip or other evidence of debt in legal tender at face value at least once a month on a regular pay day. A third measure, requiring payment in lawful money, applies only to wage earners employed by corporations or in factories, mines, or workshops.

In Louisiana, a semimonthly pay day is required for all employees (except the clerical and sales force) in manufacturing, mining, and oil boring, where 10 or more are employed, and in public service corporations. A second law, applying to all workers, requires that checks or other tokens be redeemed at face value, on demand, on the pay day following issuance; those employees discharged and quitting must be paid within 24 hours; if not, their wages continue until paid or payment is tendered.

In North Carolina, a law applying only to railroad-shop and round-house employees requires a semimonthly pay day and payment in lawful money or check. In Oklahoma, compulsory payment in lawful money is required for employees in mining, quarrying, manufacturing, and transmission and transportation of passengers or freight and, if demanded, a semimonthly pay day. In South Carolina, a weekly pay requirement applies to textile manufacturing and a semi-monthly one to shop employees of certain railroads; nonnegotiable pay orders are prohibited except for agricultural employees under contract. Tennessee private employers of 20 or more must pay semi-monthly in lawful money or check. A Texas law with broad but by no means complete coverage requires a semimonthly pay day, and payment within 6 days after demand for discharged or quitting workers and those absent on pay day. In Virginia, certain railroad employees and employees in mining and manufacturing are entitled to a semimonthly pay day and payment in lawful money or check or cash order. Employees of sawmills and excelsior mills must be paid monthly.

In the States covered, as in many others, the absence of a protective law on wage payment or the existence of a poor one makes workers the victims of financially irresponsible or careless or, in some cases, dishonest employers. The recognized standard for wage payment and wage collection laws includes the following guaranties: The worker must be able to count on the payment of his wages in full, in actual money (not scrip or other substitute), on regular pay days. The pay period should be short enough so that living expenses can be met on

a cash, not a credit, basis. Prompt payment of wages due should be guaranteed to a worker who is separated from the pay roll. The State labor department should be authorized to help a worker collect wages due, if his employer fails or refuses to pay him.

Industrial Safety and Health

At conferences dealing with labor legislation it has been agreed that safety of workers is the responsibility of the employer and it has been recommended that he should be required by law to furnish a safe workplace. For many years, labor laws attempted to spell out the specific standards which would safeguard workers against industrial accidents and diseases. It is now generally agreed that because changing methods of production bring about changing hazards, a different approach is needed.

The Second National Conference on Labor Legislation, held in North Carolina more than 10 years ago, advocated that "the State department administering the labor laws should have authority to formulate industrial rules or codes, preferably with the assistance of advisory committees, including representatives of employers, employees, and experts, for the protection of the health and safety of employees. Such rules or codes should conform substantially to nationally approved standards."

Many States in preparing safety and health standards have adopted in whole or in part the safety codes promulgated by the American Standards Association.

STATUTES AND REGULATIONS

In all the States covered in this article, except Mississippi, the departments of labor have definite responsibility under law for insuring the safety of workers. The labor departments of Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, North Carolina, and Oklahoma have statutory authority to issue regulations for the safety and health of workers. In Tennessee, the department has such authority for industrial safety only. In South Carolina, as in Mississippi, rule-making authority is given to the department of health. In Texas and Virginia, although limited statutory standards exist, no general power to issue safety and health regulations exists in any agency.

As of 1946, action had been taken under such authority as follows:

The Alabama Department of Industrial Relations has issued a basic safety manual which includes, together with rules dealing with common accident hazards, basic information on accident prevention. In addition, other rules cover mine safety and open pits and quarries.

The Arkansas Commissioner of Labor has issued a basic safety manual, covering practically the same subjects as those in the Al-

bama manual, and five additional codes dealing with special subjects. The Alabama and Arkansas codes follow the American Standards codes very closely.

Under the authority of the Florida Industrial Commission, five codes dealing with various branches of the lumber and woodworking industries and also with boiler safety have been adopted.

In addition to the adoption of certain safety rules by the Kentucky Department of Industrial Relations, a comprehensive list of safety codes promulgated by the American Standards Association has been recommended to employers.

No rules have been issued in Georgia or in Louisiana under the authority of the commissioners of labor.

Under authority of the commissioner of labor, North Carolina has issued a basic safety code and 10 or more special codes. Oklahoma has adopted safety rules on 15 subjects.

The Tennessee Division of Factory Inspection, in carrying out its authority to prescribe safety devices and safeguards, has issued more than 40 rules covering various subjects. A 1945 act of the State Legislature transferred the functions of the department of labor, with respect to conditions injurious to the health of industrial workers, to the department of public health.

In Mississippi and South Carolina, rule-making authority is vested in the State Board of Health.

Workmen's Compensation

Workmen's compensation laws are designed to assure prompt payment of benefits to injured employees or to the dependents of those killed in industry, regardless of fault. In the early days, if an injured worker sued his employer for damages, he had to prove that the employer was negligent. Under the compensation law the question of fault or blame for the accident is not raised, as the cost of work injuries is considered part of production costs.

Workmen's compensation laws are of two types—compulsory and elective. A compulsory statute is one whereby every employer within the scope of the compensation law is required to accept the act and pay the compensation specified. An elective act is one in which the employer has the option of either accepting or rejecting the act, but in case he rejects it he loses the customary common law defenses—assumed risk of the employment, negligence of fellow servants, and contributory negligence. The compulsory type of law has been recommended by the several National Conferences on Labor Legislation.

All the States in the group considered, with the exception of Mississippi, have enacted workmen's compensation laws. Of these States, only four—Arkansas, Kentucky, Oklahoma, and Virginia—have compulsory laws; however, the Kentucky and Oklahoma laws cover only hazardous employments. The laws of the other States are elective. In Georgia, North Carolina, and South Carolina the laws are compulsory for public employees, and in Texas for operators of motorbusses.

The employer is required in each of these States to obtain insurance with private insurance companies, or to give proof of his ability to carry his own risk (self-insurance). In Oklahoma, employers may insure their risks in the State insurance fund or with private carriers.

COVERAGE

None of the 47 States conform entirely to the suggested standards with respect to coverage as recommended by the National Conferences on Labor Legislation.

The suggested standards for workmen's compensation acts include total coverage of workers regardless of the type of industry or the number of employees and require the payment of benefits not only in the case of an accidental injury, but also for disabilities resulting from an occupational disease.

All of this group (except Louisiana) provide that employers of fewer than a stipulated number of employees are exempted from compensation-coverage requirements. Although the Louisiana act does not have a numerical exemption, coverage is limited in this State because the law applies mainly to listed "hazardous" or "extra-hazardous" employments. None of these States covers agricultural or domestic service. However, most of the acts permit voluntary acceptance by the employer in these fields, and also in instances in which there is a numerical exemption or in which the law applies only to hazardous employments.

OCCUPATIONAL DISEASE

The National Conference on Labor Legislation has frequently recommended "general" coverage of occupational disease instead of "schedule" coverage under which compensation is paid only for specifically listed diseases. A similar recommendation was made by the International Association of Accident Boards and Commissions in 1944. Occupational disease legislation has been enacted in six of the States in this group—Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, North Carolina, and Virginia—but only Florida provides general coverage. The Kentucky law is limited to silicosis and injuries or death by gas or smoke in mines and by poisonous gas in any occupation.

BENEFITS

The compensation benefits are based on proportion of wages received by the injured worker. In death cases, these percentages sometimes vary and depend on the number of children. The suggested standard as recommended by the National Conference on Labor Legislation proposes that in disability cases not less than 66% percent of the employee's wages should be paid as compensation, and that the maximum weekly compensation should be based on a standard of living above the subsistence level. In the group of 13 States the maximum percentage of wages in disabilities ranges from 50 to 66% percent, although in recent years there has been some improvement in the maximum weekly payments permitted by these laws. These payments still do not take into consideration the higher wages now paid. The maximum weekly payments vary from \$18 in Alabama, Kentucky, and Tennessee to \$25 in South Carolina. In Arkansas, Georgia, Louisiana, Texas, and Virginia the maximum is \$20, in North Carolina and Oklahoma \$21, and in Florida \$22.

The National Conferences on Labor Legislation have recommended that death benefits be paid to the widow for life (or until remarriage), and to children until they reach the age of 18. However, none of the listed States has such provisions. In all these States the death benefits are limited to payments for a specified period ranging from 300 to 450 weeks. Oklahoma pays no death benefits. Some of these States also fix a total maximum for death benefits ranging from \$5,000 to \$7,200. With respect to permanent total disability, it has been recommended that benefits be paid during the period of disability, but in the States under consideration, such benefits are limited as to time and amount, or both. The time periods range from 350 to 550 weeks, and the money limits from \$5,000 to \$10,500.

Permanent partial disabilities are classified as specific or schedule injuries, such as the loss or loss of use of a member, and "nonschedule" injuries, which are those of a more general nature, as, for example, disability caused by injury to the head or back. The measure of such compensation is usually a stated number of weeks. In Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, and North Carolina, the compensation for permanent partial disability is in addition to the period of total disability or healing period. In Alabama, Kentucky, Louisiana, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, and Virginia, on the other hand, the schedule payments are exclusive; in other words, the temporary total benefit payments are subtracted from the amount due from permanent partial disability. In either event, there may be money or period limitations.

MEDICAL CARE

In all workmen's compensation acts, medical care is required to be furnished to injured employees. In early legislation the provision for medical aid was narrowly restricted as to monetary cost, period of treatment, or both. In the later development of the acts such absolute restrictions have been changed in many cases either by providing for unlimited benefits or by authorizing benefits in addition to the initial maximum upon the approval of the administrative authority. In Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, North Carolina, Oklahoma, and South Carolina, medical benefits are virtually unlimited because the administrative agency can extend such services indefinitely. In Arkansas, however, there are arbitrary limitations upon the medical aid for occupational diseases. In Alabama, Kentucky, Louisiana, Tennessee, Texas, and Virginia, there are period or cost limitations. Extensions are permitted in Tennessee, Texas, and Virginia, but these are restricted to specified periods or amounts, or both.

WAITING PERIOD

All the States in this group provide for a specified waiting period immediately following the injury during which compensation shall not be paid. This "waiting time" is 3 days in South Carolina, 4 in Florida, 5 in Oklahoma, and 7 days in the other States. The justification for the waiting period is the cost and administrative burden of bookkeeping in setting up claim files and accounts where but a few dollars are involved. The waiting period relates only to compensation. Medical and hospital care is provided immediately, regardless of the fact that compensation is not paid for a specified period. Most of the laws provide that if the disability continues for a certain number of weeks the payment of compensation is retroactive to the date of injury. In Arkansas, Kentucky, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Texas, if the disability lasts for 4 weeks, compensation is paid from the date of disability. In South Carolina, the retroactive period is 2 weeks; in Louisiana and in Virginia it is 6 weeks. There is no retroactive period in Alabama, Florida, Georgia, and Oklahoma.

SECOND-INJURY FUNDS

In recent years, a new type of provision establishing "second-injury funds" has been included in workmen's compensation laws. When an employee has sustained an injury involving the loss of a member of the body and then loses another as a result of an industrial injury, he may become permanently and totally disabled. If the total cost of compensation is imposed on the latest employer, physically handicapped persons are apt to be refused employment. To meet such

problems second-injury funds were created, so that when a second injury occurs the employer has to pay only for the last injury, yet the employee is compensated for the disability resulting from the combined injuries, the remainder of the award being paid from the fund.

State workmen's compensation commissioners, employer and employee groups, and veterans' organizations have agreed that second-injury funds offer the best means of facilitating the employment of disabled veterans and other handicapped persons. The International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions, at its meeting in September 1944, recommended a draft bill relating to second injuries and the establishment of a second-injury fund. The draft bill provides that, if an employee who has sustained one of certain specified losses (i. e., the loss, or loss of use, of one hand, one arm, one foot, one leg, or one eye) becomes permanently and totally incapacitated through the loss, or loss of use, of another member or organ, the employer shall be liable only for the compensation payable for the second injury, and the balance of the compensation shall be paid out of the second-injury fund. The fund is financed by payments of \$500 by the employer in each case of death if there are no dependents.

Second-injury funds have been established in Arkansas, Kentucky, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, and Tennessee. The laws of Arkansas, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Tennessee conform to the standards proposed by the draft bill with respect to the injuries covered, although differences exist in the methods of financing the fund. The Kentucky law applies in the case of an employee who previously was permanently partially disabled, and who receives a second injury whereby the combined disabilities are greater than that which would have resulted from the second injury alone. In Oklahoma, the law applies to "physically impaired persons" who receive a second injury which results in additional permanent disability.

MINORS

All workmen's compensation laws cover minors legally employed. In Arkansas, Georgia, Kentucky, North Carolina, South Carolina, Texas, and Virginia, compensation is paid to minors illegally employed on the same basis as if they were legally employed. In Alabama and Florida, the laws provide extra compensation in such cases. On the other hand, the laws of Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Tennessee do not cover minors illegally employed.

ADMINISTRATION

In establishing the workmen's compensation system the principal objective was to provide a simple, convenient, and inexpensive method of settling the claims of injured workers. Both the National

Conferences on Labor Legislation and the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions have recommended administration by a commission or board rather than by the courts. In most of the Southern States having workmen's compensation laws, special agencies have been formed to administer the acts. However, in Alabama, Louisiana, and Tennessee, court procedure remains as a survival of early practice.

Industrial Relations

Industrial-relations legislation in the group of Southern States has been limited generally to the fields of conciliation, mediation, and arbitration of industrial disputes, and to the regulation of unions and labor-organization activity.

CONCILIATION, MEDIATION, AND ARBITRATION

Most of the Southern States are authorized by law to endeavor to settle disputes through the use of conciliation, mediation, or arbitration machinery.

Conciliation and mediation services are provided through special permanent agencies in two State labor departments—in North Carolina, the division of conciliation, and in Oklahoma, the board of arbitration and conciliation.

In six other States, authority to mediate or to promote voluntary conciliation or mediation is vested in a designated government official. This official is the labor commissioner in Arkansas, Georgia, Louisiana, and South Carolina, and the commissioner of industrial relations in Kentucky. In Alabama, the Governor is empowered to appoint mediation boards, and the department of industrial relations is also authorized to promote mediation.

Five States—Florida, Mississippi, Tennessee, Texas, and Virginia—have no machinery for conciliation and mediation of labor disputes.

Arbitration under special procedures for labor disputes is provided for in Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, Louisiana, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, and Texas. Permanent arbitration agencies are established in the labor departments of two of these States—the North Carolina Arbitration Service and the Oklahoma Board of Arbitration and Conciliation.

PROTECTION OF LABOR'S RIGHTS

There is a limited amount of legislation, in these 13 States, protecting labor's right to organize and bargain collectively.

The right of organization and collective bargaining is recognized by law in Alabama, Florida, and Kentucky. The Alabama law, however, also specifies the right of employees to refrain from such activities.

One State, Louisiana, has an anti-injunction law modeled after the Federal Norris-LaGuardia Act, and an Oklahoma law places limited restrictions on the courts in labor disputes.

Blacklisting of employees is forbidden by law in seven States—Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Texas, and Virginia; and “yellow dog” contracts are outlawed in Louisiana.

UNION REGULATION

Over the past 5 or 6 years, there has been a decided increase in State legislation restricting or regulating union activity. At present, all these States except five—Kentucky, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, and Tennessee—have union regulatory laws. Many of these laws have been held invalid, and others are in process of appeal in the courts, so that the constitutionality of much of this legislation is still in doubt. The main provisions of those laws still in effect are summarized as follows.

Internal Union Organization

Alabama, Florida, and Texas adopted legislation in 1943 which regulates internal union organization. The Alabama act requires every labor organization to file with the State department of labor copies of its constitution and bylaws, and the secretary and business agent of every local union with 25 members to make annual verified reports, to its members and to the labor department, containing data on its officers, membership, elections, and property holdings, and a complete financial statement. It also prohibits membership of professional or supervisory employees in labor organizations which admit or are affiliated with unions admitting nonsupervisory employees, and forbids collection by a labor union of any fee for a work permit.

The Florida Union Regulatory Act prohibits interference with the right of franchise of any union member and solicitation of membership without authority of that organization. With regard to union finances, the law limits union initiation fees not in effect in 1940 to \$15, requires unions to keep itemized financial accounts open to the membership, and prohibits unions from requiring payment of back dues of returning servicemen.

The Texas Union Regulatory Act requires every union to file with the secretary of state copies of its constitution and organization records and to make annual verified reports to the secretary of state containing data on the organization, its affiliates and locals, its local officials, its property holdings, and a complete financial statement.

The Texas law also establishes citizenship requirement for union officials, provides that union members may be expelled only for good

cause and after public hearing, and directs the courts to intervene to reinstate any member expelled in violation of these provisions. Unions are forbidden to collect fees for work permits, to make political contributions, or to require returning servicemen to pay back dues, and are required to keep itemized financial accounts open to the membership and to legal proceedings. The legal requirement that union organizers secure a registration card from the secretary of state was held unconstitutional in a case appealed to the United States Supreme Court.

Right to Work

So-called "right to work" constitutional amendments have been adopted in Arkansas and Florida. The Florida amendment makes unlawful the denial of the "right to work" on account of membership or nonmembership in any labor organization. The Arkansas amendment authorizes legislation of this type.

Strike, Picketing, and Organization Activity

Eight States—Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, Texas, and Virginia—have laws directly regulating unions during strikes, picketing, or other organizational activity.

Participation in "wildcat" strikes is outlawed in Alabama. Florida forbids strikes unless authorized by majority vote in a secret ballot and prohibits seizure or unlawful occupation of property during a labor dispute. It also forbids strikes caused by jurisdictional disputes. A Georgia law requires 30 days' written strike notice of all employees except seasonal and railroad workers. Louisiana in 1946 adopted legislation providing that "wildcat" strikes in violation of collective-bargaining agreements are against public policy.

So-called "anti-violence" legislation, recently adopted in Alabama, Arkansas, Mississippi, and Texas, outlaws assemblage near the place where a labor dispute exists and forbids the use or threat of force to prevent any person from engaging in a lawful vocation. The Alabama law also outlaws the use of threats, force, or coercion to prevent an employer's use of materials, equipment, or service. Violation of this legislation in Arkansas, Mississippi, and Texas is made a felony.

A Florida law outlaws picketing the home of an employee, picketing beyond the area of the industry in which a dispute arises, picketing by force or violence or in such manner as to prevent entrance to or exit from any premises, or picketing "other than in a reasonable and peaceable manner."

The following acts are prohibited by Virginia law: Interference with the right of another to work; use of force, threats or intimidation, or insulting language to induce any person to quit his employment or

to refrain from seeking employment; picketing by force or violence; picketing so as to interfere with the entrance or exit of any premises or of the free use of public streets; and picketing by any person not employed by the business picketed, either at that time or immediately prior to the strike.

Unemployment Insurance

In the Southern States studied the unemployment-insurance laws differ considerably as to coverage and amount of benefits, the duration of unemployment, and other factors. Ten States—Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, and Virginia—provide that employers of 8 or more employees in 20 weeks are covered by the legislation. Arkansas specifies 1 or more employees in 10 days, Kentucky 4 or more employees in 3 quarters of a preceding year, and Louisiana 4 or more employees in 20 weeks.

After an unemployed worker has filed a claim and before benefit payments begin, a waiting period of 1 or 2 weeks is usually required. All the States in this group have 1-week waiting periods except Georgia and Mississippi, which require a 2-week period before benefits begin.

In order to be entitled to benefits, a worker must have earned a specified amount in covered employments. The amount of the benefit to be paid is determined by the worker's wages or employment during a "base period." This period, generally 1 of the 4 quarters of the year (13 weeks), is used to determine a worker's earnings for eligibility, weekly benefits, and the duration of benefits. Under most laws the worker receives approximately 50 percent of his full-time weekly wage. All States limit the maximum and the minimum amount of weekly benefits.

In this group, the top limit on benefit payments ranges from \$15 to \$20 a week. Alabama, North Carolina, and South Carolina pay a maximum of \$20; Georgia, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas, \$18; Kentucky, \$16; and in Arkansas, Florida, Mississippi, Tennessee, and Virginia, the maximum is fixed at \$15 a week. Minimum payments range from \$3 to \$6 a week. The maximum number of weeks in which unemployment-compensation benefits are paid ranges from 14 to 20. Benefits are limited to 14 weeks in Mississippi, to 16 in Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia; and to 20 weeks in Alabama, Kentucky, Louisiana, and Oklahoma. Texas alone has specified that instead of a definite number of weeks the payment should be 9 times the benefit allowed for a 2-week period.

Child Labor

The following review of the major provisions of the child labor laws shows the existing standards.

MINIMUM AGE

North and South Carolina, in 1937, became the first of the Southern States to incorporate a 16-year minimum age standard in their child labor laws. Florida followed in 1941, Louisiana in 1942, and Georgia in 1946. Four of these five States—Georgia, Louisiana, North Carolina, and South Carolina—have a 16-year minimum age for employment in factories at any time and for any employment during school hours except in agriculture and domestic service. The fifth State—Florida—also has a 16-year minimum age for factory employment at any time, but requires a minimum age of 14 for all other employment during school hours.

A 15-year minimum age requirement obtains in factory and related employment in Texas. A 14-year minimum age standard applies to factory employment at any time in the remaining seven States (in Kentucky only during school hours), and to all other work during school hours, except in Mississippi, Oklahoma, and Virginia. In Virginia, work in agriculture and, in Mississippi and Oklahoma, work in agriculture and certain other occupations are not covered.

For work outside school hours most of these States set a minimum age of 14 but usually exempt agriculture and domestic service, and some permit employment at the age of 12 in certain other occupations. A few establish no minimum age for nonfactory employment outside school hours or cover no work outside school hours.

EMPLOYMENT CERTIFICATES

Because the employment certificate shows that the minor for whom it is issued has reached the minimum age for work and has met the other requirements fixed by law for his protection, an employment certificate system is a safeguard against illegal employment and an essential support of child labor standards. Ten States in this group require employment certificates as a condition for the employment of minors under 16 years of age, and seven States require either employment certificates or age certificates for minors above this age (Alabama to 17, and to 19 for work in certain hazardous employments; Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, and North Carolina to 18; Oklahoma to 18 where continuation schools are established; and Tennessee to 18 in certain hazardous occupations).

The child labor laws of three of the States, however, do not provide for an employment certificate system (Mississippi, South Carolina,

and Texas). To supply the need for proof of legal employment under the child labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act in these States, certificates of age are issued by the U. S. Department of Labor in cooperation with State and local officials. Moreover, in all 13 States, age certificates are issued for minors who have passed the age when certificates are required, on request of the minor or the employer.

HAZARDOUS OCCUPATIONS

In general, the protection from hazardous employment afforded minors under age 18 in the listed States is inadequate, particularly as to minors 16 and 17 years of age. Only three States (Louisiana, North Carolina, and Virginia) now prohibit employment of minors of 16 and 17 in any considerable number of dangerous occupations. Greater protection is afforded children under 16 from hazardous work, more than half the States prohibiting their employment in many hazardous occupations. Little or no such protection, however, is given in several States.

MAXIMUM HOURS AND NIGHT WORK

None of the 13 States protects minors up to 18 years of age from excessive hours of work to the extent recommended by the International Association of Governmental Labor Officials—a maximum 8-hour day, 40-hour week, and 6-day week. Louisiana, which has an 8-hour day, 44-hour week, and 6-day week for minors under 18, comes nearest. Few of the other States have limited maximum hours for both boys and girls of 16 and 17.

Five States, in addition to Louisiana, have adopted for children under age 16 a maximum workweek standard of less than 48 hours. These are Florida, Georgia, and North Carolina, with an 8-hour day, 40-hour week for children under 16, and Mississippi and Virginia with an 8-hour day, 44-hour week, for such children. Except for South Carolina, the remaining States have an 8-hour day, 48-hour week, applicable to children under 16 (in Texas to children under 15). South Carolina has no maximum hours of work provisions applicable to minors only, but has an 8-hour day, 40-hour week, 5-day week³ for most employees of any age in silk, rayon, cotton, and woolen mills. For girls in stores the maximum is a 12-hour day, 60-hour week.

All 13 States have prohibited night work of minors under 16 years of age, but only 4 (Arkansas, Florida, Louisiana, and North Carolina) have such a prohibition for both boys and girls 16 and 17 years of age.

³ See comment under Hours of Work (p. 537).

STANDARDS AND ACCOMPLISHMENTS

Looking at the child labor laws in the States analyzed as a whole, the most serious weaknesses are the frequent exemptions of agriculture and domestic-service occupations, in which large numbers of children are employed; the lack of protection afforded minors 16 and 17 years of age, both in respect to hours of employment and to hazardous work; the limited coverage of some of the older laws; and the lack of certificate systems in three of the States.

In the South, as in the entire country, war labor needs brought about an unprecedented demand for the employment of young workers. This demand is reflected in the large increases in the number of employment and age certificates issued for children between 14 and 18 years of age during the war years, although these certificates do not tell the whole story. They do not cover children going to work in all industries, they are not required for all young workers of these ages, and they do not, of course, reflect illegal employment.

Even with these limitations, the figures are striking. In 11 of this group of States for which reports are available for both 1940 and 1945, the number of young persons between 14 and 18 years of age obtaining employment or age certificates for work (full time or part time) increased more than sevenfold. About 17 percent of these boys and girls going to work in 1945 were 14 or 15 years of age. Available figures for 1946 indicate a decided drop, as would be expected with the cessation of war demands, but in general the totals for the first 5 months of 1946 are considerably above those for the entire year 1940.

Although child labor legislation has developed slowly in this region, noteworthy advances have been made in the past decade in the laws of a number of the Southern States. These gains meet or approach standards urged as desirable for the employment of young persons by the International Association of Governmental Labor Officials and other groups interested in the protection of young workers from harmful child labor and reflect a sincere recognition of the needs of the young people of this region. The standards recommended by the International Association of Governmental Labor Officials are a 16-year minimum age for factory employment at any time, 16 for all employment during school hours, 14 outside school hours for all nonfactory employment, and for minors under 18 years of age a maximum 8-hour day, 40-hour week, and 6-day week; prohibition of night work; a requirement of employment certificates; and prohibition of work in hazardous occupations.

VI—Development of Trade-Unionism in the South¹

THERE has been a measure of trade-union activity in the South since the 1880's, and there were isolated instances of the existence of labor organizations prior to that time. During the past 60 years, union organization and membership in the South has risen with every major upsurge of organized labor activity nationally. Since 1900 a continuous labor movement, confined during much of the time to certain of the skilled crafts, has functioned in the region. After more than a decade of effort beginning with the NRA period, union organization has established itself in the southern iron and steel, coal mining, shipbuilding, petroleum refining, pulp and paper, and tobacco industries, and has penetrated cotton textiles, hosiery, and furniture. Lumber workers remain largely unorganized. The more traditional areas of organization, in construction, printing, railroading, longshore work, and the like, have been materially strengthened.

No complete account of the development of the labor movement in the South has been written; indeed, much basic research remains to be done before a definitive history can be prepared. The purpose of this article is to present the main outline of the story as an aid to perspective in viewing current developments in labor organization in the region.

The Knights of Labor in the South

The Noble Order of the Knights of Labor was founded in Philadelphia in 1869 by an obscure group of garment workers. Its membership climbed slowly to 71,000 in 1884 and skyrocketed to 730,000 two years later. The organization became, for a brief period, the chief vehicle of labor protest against the conditions that attended the rapid spread of industrial capitalism in the United States during the latter part of the nineteenth century.

Assemblies² of the Knights were organized in Alabama and Kentucky as early as 1879, but membership was not appreciable in the region until 1884.³ During the next 4 years, the movement spread rapidly. The first assembly in North Carolina was formed in June 1884;⁴ by 1887 assemblies had been organized in most of the counties of the State.⁵ Incomplete data for 1888 show 487 assemblies in 10

¹ Prepared by H. M. Douty, Chief of the Bureau's Labor Economics Staff.

² The "assembly" was the unit of organization. Assemblies were composed of workers in one calling or else were "mixed"; i. e., composed of workers in various occupations and industries. Most of the assemblies in the South were of the latter type.

³ Frederic Meyers: *The Knights of Labor in the South* (in *Southern Economic Journal*, April 1940, p. 483).

⁴ H. M. Douty: *Early Labor Organization in North Carolina, 1880-1900* (in *South Atlantic Quarterly*, July 1935).

⁵ North Carolina Bureau of Labor Statistics, Annual Report, 1887 (p. 224).

Southern States, including 101 in North Carolina, 65 in Louisiana, 64 in Alabama, 56 in Kentucky, and 54 in Virginia.⁶ Meyers estimates that the membership of the Knights in 10 Southern States was about 30,000 in 1886.⁷

Although the strength of the organization was most pronounced in the larger cities, local assemblies were scattered throughout the region. The poorer farmers contributed substantially to the membership of the Knights. Mitchell writes that of "112 assemblies in Alabama, Georgia, North and South Carolina which wrote in to the weekly journal [of the Knights] in 1888, 47 said their members were mainly farmers, 3 had mostly cotton mill hands, and 62 either had a mixture of farmers and artisans or did not state the composition."⁸ Some effort was made to reach colored workers: there were a number of Negro assemblies in the South and some assemblies included both Negroes and whites. The Order was officially opposed to race discrimination.

According to its minute book,⁹ Local Assembly No. 3606 in Raleigh, N. C., agitated for the 10-hour day, helped to conduct national boycotts, brought in speakers on labor subjects, encouraged study among its members, aided financially distressed brothers, and attempted to influence legislation. The movement touched many people with its message of the worth and dignity of labor and of the benefits of solidarity.

In a number of communities, cotton-mill operatives were organized. A long work stoppage took place at Augusta, Ga., where some 4,000 mill workers were out for about 2 months in an unsuccessful wage dispute. Other disputes involving cotton-mill workers occurred at Cottondale, Ala., Greenville, S. C., Maryville, Tenn., and Roswell, Ga. There were coal strikes in 1888 at Whiteside, Tenn., and at Pratt Mines, Ala. Sugar workers struck at Schriever, La., in 1887 and lumber workers at Ray, Ala., in 1890. The Knights also started many cooperative enterprises¹⁰ in the South and participated actively in politics in some areas.

The Knights of Labor reached its greatest strength nationally in 1886, and thereafter declined rapidly. The peak in the South came a year or so later, but the decline was equally sharp. The town elements drifted away, and the remnants of the farm membership were attracted by the great Populist movement that developed in the region during the 1890's.

⁶ Meyers, op. cit. The 10 States are Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia.

⁷ See footnote 6.

⁸ George S. Mitchell: *Textile Unionism and the South* (Chapel Hill, University of North Carolina Press, 1931) pp. 23-24.

⁹ This minute book has been preserved in the North Carolina Historical Commission Library in Raleigh.

¹⁰ Most of these enterprises were short-lived, but some lasted for a number of years.

Beginnings of Permanent Unionism Under American Federation of Labor

Almost a decade passed between the flurry of organization under the Knights of Labor and the second period of active union effort in the South. The American Federation of Labor, completely overshadowed by the Knights in the 1880's, managed to survive the deep depression of the nineties. Its membership was about 272,000 in 1897; under the stimulus of rising prices and generally prosperous business conditions, membership expanded to 1,556,000 in 1903. During this period, the Federation established a narrow base in the South.

Samuel Gompers became interested in the organization of southern workers as early as 1894.¹¹ At the American Federation of Labor convention in 1898, the executive council was instructed to place organizers in the southern area. Mr. Gompers was able to report to the 1899 convention that the "workers of the South are manifesting their appreciation of our efforts by forming unions, and uniting with our fellow workers in all parts of the country."¹² The convention instructed the executive council to take additional measures to stimulate organization in the South.¹³

For 3 or 4 years following 1898 labor activity was substantial in the South. Many groups of skilled workers formed local unions and affiliated with the national union of their craft.¹⁴ The movement on the railroads, among the building trades, and in printing was highly significant. Some of these locals survived the decline in activity that occurred after 1902, combined into State federations of labor, and formed a permanent base for the labor movement in the region.

While skilled workers were rapidly forming unions, organization reached the factory employees and the Alabama coal miners. Little headway was made in the tobacco manufacturing industry. Locals of the International Tobacco Workers' Union were formed in North Carolina, Kentucky, and perhaps elsewhere in the South, but most of these locals quickly disintegrated. The union complained bitterly of the opposition of the "Tobacco Trust."¹⁵

The movement in cotton textiles was more vigorous and appeared first in Augusta, Ga., where the mills, late in 1898, announced a wage cut. The workers formed local unions and affiliated with the National Union of Textile Workers. This union had so few northern members

¹¹ Samuel Gompers: *Seventy Years of Life and Labor* (New York, Dutton, 1925), I (p. 419).

¹² A. F. of L. Proceedings, 1899 (p. 9).

¹³ *Idem* (p. 65).

¹⁴ In North Carolina in 1901, for example, there were 26 locals of building trades workers, 13 of railroad workers, 8 in printing, and 11 locals of other types of skilled workers. See North Carolina Bureau of Labor and Printing, *Annual Report*, 1901 (pp. 386 ff.).

¹⁵ E. Lewis Evans: *Tobacco Workers* (in *American Federationist*, September 1903).

that the southern workers found themselves in a majority. Prince Greene of Columbus, Ga., was president from 1898 to 1900, and secretary-treasurer from 1900 until the next year, when the United Textile Workers' Union was formed.

When the wage cut was made effective in Augusta, the operatives in 8 mills struck. The workers eventually returned at the lower rate, but on the basis of no discrimination against the strike leadership and with several minor concessions from the employers. Moreover, the union was able to maintain itself in the Augusta area.¹⁶

In the meantime, textile locals appeared in North and South Carolina, with the employers resorting to lock-outs to destroy union organization.¹⁷ The decisive test in North Carolina occurred in the fall of 1900, when a strike lasting more than a month affected all of the mills in Alamance County. The strike, which had its origin in a minor incident, developed into a major fight for the right to organize. Evictions, the lack of adequate relief, and a slow market for cotton goods caused the strike to collapse.¹⁸ The defeat broke the back of cotton-mill unionism in the Carolinas.

On April 1, 1901, President Gompers of the American Federation of Labor arrived in Danville, Va. The textile local there had decided to attempt to gain the 10-hour day.¹⁹ When shorter hours were refused, the operatives walked out. The strike lasted for a number of weeks, but ended in defeat for the men. After the Danville defeat, union membership in the South was again confined to the Augusta district. In the fall of 1901, the Augusta locals attempted to obtain a 10-percent wage increase. Ultimately, about 7,000 operatives were directly involved. The newly organized United Textile Workers contributed funds for the relief of the strikers and aided in other ways. The strike was unsuccessful, the Augusta locals were broken, and thus ended the first substantial movement for cotton-mill unionism in the South.

The United Mine Workers entered the Alabama coal fields not long after its formation in 1890. By 1902, some 65 percent of the Alabama miners were organized. Many of the operators entered into collective-bargaining agreements with the union. A strike occurred in 1904 when some of the companies refused to deal with the union.

The real test of union strength came 4 years later, when the remainder of the operators refused to renew the union agreement.

¹⁶ Mitchell, *op. cit.* (pp. 27 ff.).

¹⁷ It is known that lock-outs occurred in Greenwood, Abbeville, and Bath, S. C., and at Greensboro and Fayetteville, N. C.

¹⁸ Holland Thompson: *From Cotton Field to Cotton Mill* (New York, Macmillan Co., 1906) pp. 193-195.

¹⁹ Apparently as a result of union agitation, the mill, which had been operating 12 hours daily, had announced late in 1900 that from January 1 to April 1 the schedule would be 10 hours, with 11 hours for the remainder of the year. The workers wanted a flat 10-hour schedule.

The union struck on July 6, 1908, and the stoppage lasted for about 2 months. Negro miners made up a substantial proportion of union membership in Alabama. White and colored miners exhibited marked solidarity during the struggle, but the race issue, raised by the companies, contributed greatly to the defeat of the strike.²⁰

Quiescent Years, 1902-14

Union activity in the South between 1902 and the World War I period was confined largely, although not entirely, to the skilled trades. The period was not spectacular. There were many minor victories and numerous minor defeats for the skilled workers in unions. No major disputes occurred. Tangible improvement in economic position was secured in many situations as the result of persuasion or strike.

An indication of what happened may be furnished by random instances in North Carolina in 1906 and 1907. In the former year, the clerks of Salisbury organized and secured the earlier closing of stores; tinners in Charlotte won the 9-hour day; the printers in Wilmington gained an 8-hour day; a wage increase of 10 percent was secured by the machinists of Goldsboro. In 1907, the Asheville plumbers struck for the 8-hour day and compromised on 9 hours; the carpenters in Canton won the 9-hour day; in Wilmington, a cotton mill reduced hours from 11 to 10 when the employees, with the support of the local craft unions, asked for the reduction; the carpenters in Raleigh struck unsuccessfully for the 9-hour day.

These instances of union effort could be multiplied many times for the South as a whole. Taken together, their effect was not inconsiderable in the gradual improvement in labor standards that occurred in the region and in the remainder of the country during the decade preceding World War I.²¹ There are no reliable estimates of union membership in the South during this period. It is certain that membership was relatively small.

A short but dramatic union episode during this period involved the lumber workers of the Southwest. The Brotherhood of Timber Workers, an independent union, was formed in 1910.²² At the peak of its activity, this union had a membership of about 35,000 in the lumber industry of Texas, Louisiana, and Arkansas. About half of

²⁰ Sterling D. Spero and Abram L. Harris: *The Black Worker* (New York, Columbia University Press 1931), pp. 355-359.

²¹ The improvement reflected gains made through collective bargaining and through State labor legislation. Between 1903 and 1909, for example, every State in the South passed child labor laws.

²² The formation of the Brotherhood of Timber Workers had been preceded by a largely spontaneous strike over wages in 1907 among the timber workers of Louisiana and eastern Texas. *Industrial Workers of the World, The Lumber Industry and Its Workers* (p. 76).

the members were Negroes. In 1912 the union affiliated with the Industrial Workers of the World. Employer opposition was bitter, and the efforts of the union to secure improvements in wages and working conditions were punctuated by lock-outs, strikes, and violence against union members. Jensen writes: "The union began to crack when some of the most obnoxious causes of dissatisfaction, such as payment in scrip and forced use of company stores and monthly payment of wages, were modified and small wage increases and shorter hours were granted. At the same time, the strain of blacklisting, discrimination, and fomenting of racial conflict had an effect. After 3 years of struggle, the union had been completely destroyed."²³

There was also a measure of organization during this period; some desperate strikes occurred among the cigar workers of Tampa; and, toward the end of the period, signs of restiveness among the textile workers began to appear. In 1912, the American Federation of Labor held its convention at Atlanta, which had the effect of stimulating interest in unionism in the South. In cotton textiles, locals were formed during 1912 at Danville and Lynchburg, Va., and at Knoxville, Tenn. A long stoppage in Atlanta in 1914 gave the movement valuable publicity, and an excursion during the same year by the IWW into the industry at Greenville, S. C., served to point up the workers' grievances.²⁴

War Boom and Postwar Collapse, 1914-22

During World War I, manpower shortages, rising prices, and a governmental policy favorable, on the whole, to the labor movement lent impetus to the growth of union organization. Conditions were generally conducive to the extension of unionism until the sharp depression beginning in mid-1920.

The economic impact of the war upon the United States was felt long before the country entered the conflict. Unionization, especially among skilled workers, increased at a rapid rate from 1915 onward. The movement among factory workers did not get under way significantly in the South until a year or two later.

The marked increase in organization among craft groups in the South was accompanied by numerous strikes. Most of these stoppages were on a small scale, but some, as in the case of the street-railway employees in Charlotte and Winston-Salem, N. C., and Greenville, S. C., developed into long and bitter struggles. Many of the strikes during the early part of the period were over the 8-hour day issue;

²³ Vernon H. Jensen: *Lumber and Labor* (New York, Farrar & Rinehart, 1945), p. 91. See also Spero and Harris, *op. cit.* (pp. 332-333).

²⁴ Mitchell, *op. cit.* (pp. 32-35).

later, as living costs began to rise, wage disputes were frequent. Union recognition was often one of the points at issue.

Aside from lumber and furniture, which remained relatively untouched, union activity penetrated deeply into the industrial life of the South during the First World War. Organization was extensive in tobacco, textiles, iron and steel, coal mining, and other industries.

TOBACCO INDUSTRY

In 1915, 3,245 members voted in a referendum to elect officers of the International Tobacco Workers' Union.²⁵ The only strength possessed by the union at this time was in a number of small factories (some of which were located in Kentucky) that catered to the union-label trade. The union had no influence among the workers in the major companies. Indeed, the union at this time was completely dependent upon the union label for tobacco products for its existence.

Beginning in 1916, locals of the union were formed in plants of the major companies, largely in the metropolitan New York area. Some of these locals were established during the course of unorganized strikes for wage increases and shorter hours.²⁶ Successful strikes and increased membership affected the character of the union. The use of the union label as an organizing device was largely discarded in favor of direct appeals to the workers to organize to improve their living standards.

In 1918, a number of short, spontaneous strikes occurred at the Durham, N. C., plants of the American Tobacco Co. and Liggett & Myers. A few of the workers sent for a union organizer. As a result, "a union was formed for the first time among the tobacco workers of Durham."²⁷ The companies resisted vigorously, however, and the union local was short-lived.

In Winston-Salem, N. C., the union met with greater success. In March 1919, the employees of the R. J. Reynolds Tobacco Co. began to organize. Membership increased rapidly. Despite some opposition from the Negro middle class of the community, colored workers joined in large numbers. By early summer, six large locals of tobacco workers had been established. On August 4, 1919, after much negotiation and the threat of a strike, R. J. Reynolds, Brown & Williamson, Bailey Bros., and Taylor Bros. signed an agreement providing for the 48-hour week, a 20-percent wage increase, and time and a half for overtime.²⁸ This union agreement represented the first ever signed by a major tobacco company in the South.

On the basis of its Winston-Salem success, the union reentered Durham and reached into Reidsville, where the American Tobacco

²⁵ *Tobacco Worker*, November 1915.

²⁶ *Idem*, October 1916.

²⁷ *Idem*, March 1918.

²⁸ *Idem*, August 1919.

Co. had a plant. In both cities, an appreciable membership was built up. Organizing activity was carried on for brief periods in other southern communities. The Winston-Salem victory was not repeated, however, and even in Winston-Salem the union's efforts to hold its membership were ineffective. By 1922, the membership of the union had been reduced to its prewar level.

COTTON-TEXTILE INDUSTRY

During the war and postwar boom, a very substantial union movement developed in the cotton-textile industry. Large numbers of workers were recruited and many strikes and some lock-outs occurred. The union was able to secure concessions at some mills and undoubtedly exerted material influence on conditions of work within the industry during this period. The vigorous unionism that developed, however, failed to survive the sharp collapse in business activity in 1920-21.

The United Textile Workers was active among the South Carolina cotton-mill operatives during 1915 and 1916. Mills in Greenville County were especially well organized and an appreciable membership was built up at other points in the State. The discharge of union members was the immediate point at issue in some of the disputes that took place at Greenville, Anderson, Columbia, and Westminster during this period. In 1917, major activity shifted to Georgia. The most noteworthy event was the organization of the industry in Columbus. A strike in this city resulted in a partial victory for the union in a settlement finally effected through the War Labor Board.

Mitchell writes of the period 1913-18:

Early in 1919 the union's [United Textile Workers] activity in the South underwent so many changes that it is well to regard the years from 1913 to the end of 1918 as forming a distinct period in the development of the movement. Perhaps the chief characteristic of these 5 years was the confinement of unionism to the immediate vicinity of the places in which disputes concentrated the union's forces. The union did not have enough outside financial assistance to enable it to throw a network of organizers through the region. Possibly its strategy was to give its entire attention to each strike situation, in the hope that one substantial victory would make the union's position stronger than many quick failures. As for membership, it signed the workers by hundreds, and sometimes, as at Greenville and Anderson and Columbus, by thousands in the particular places in which it happened to be engaged; but at no time did the movement show a disposition to extend beyond the areas within easy reach of the organizers who were leading strikes.²⁹

In the sense that textile union activity penetrated wider areas, 1919 appears to differ from 1918 and earlier years. Organization reached North Carolina and spread rapidly there, and South Carolina and Georgia continued to be centers of union activity. The 48-hour week

²⁹ Mitchell, op. cit. (pp. 40-41). During the 1913-18 period, according to Mitchell, the United Textile Workers chartered about 40 locals in the South.

had become a crucial demand. Early in 1919, strikes over the 48-hour issue took place at widely scattered points in the South; in several of these cases the workweek was reduced from 60 hours to 55 hours and other mills made this same reduction voluntarily.

Union membership increased rapidly in North Carolina during 1919. At the convention of the State Federation of Labor in August, the claim was made that 30,000 workers had joined the union during the preceding few months.³⁰ By September, 43 locals had been chartered by the United Textile Workers in North Carolina.³¹ The impetus to organization in North Carolina apparently came from a relatively successful strike growing out of local issues in Charlotte. In February 1919, a number of North Charlotte mills removed a wartime bonus of 35 percent of wages. Operatives in the weave room of one of the mills walked out and called in union organizers.³² The strike spread. Finally, a settlement was negotiated which provided for the reinstatement of all workers without discrimination as to union affiliation; the 55-hour week; incorporation of the bonus in the wage bill; and free house rent for the duration of the strike. Union recognition was not achieved. A similar settlement was made after a lock-out of 1,500 workers in East Charlotte.³³

The settlement made in Charlotte was satisfactory enough to those involved to enable the union to hold its membership. Indeed, the union obtained members at other mills in the Charlotte area not affected by the dispute, and the gains made in Charlotte were broadcast in mill communities throughout the State. The growth of the movement in North Carolina was accompanied by a whole series of strikes, many of which resulted in improved conditions for the strikers. Organization flowed over into the hosiery industry in High Point. In addition to Charlotte, stoppages occurred in cotton mills in Concord, McAdensville, Albemarle, Mooresville, Salisbury, Raleigh, Gastonia, and elsewhere in the State during 1919.

It was during this period that the United Textile Workers, for the first time, was able to point to substantial achievements in the form of reductions in hours, increases in wages, and some improvements in working conditions. Had the prosperity of the textile industry continued for a period of years, the union might possibly have entrenched itself strongly in the South. However, it is not at all certain that this would have happened, even if prosperous conditions had continued, because employer opposition was vigorous and many of the workers, who rushed into the union under the spur of specific grievances, tended to lose interest when these grievances were adjusted.

³⁰ News and Observer (Raleigh, N. C.), August 12, 1919.

³¹ Mitchell, op. cit. (p. 47).

³² Observer (Charlotte, N. C.), February 26-28, 1919.

³³ Idem, May 31, 1919.

In North Carolina, for example, the declining vitality of the movement was apparent in 1920. Membership slowly dropped away, despite the persistent efforts of a corps of organizers. The sharp depression beginning in 1920 and continuing through 1921 provided the occasion for the virtual disappearance of union strength.

The union in the South did not break before a final struggle centering in and around Charlotte, N. C., where the union had retained a considerable membership. With the advent of the business depression in 1920, the mills began to reduce wages. By the spring of 1921, daily wages had been cut between 30 and 50 percent and the mills were running part time. The national officials of the United Textile Workers were extremely reluctant to sanction a strike, as requested by the North Carolina locals. Business conditions made a successful outcome doubtful; moreover, union funds were so low as to preclude the payment of strike benefits. However, a conference of representatives of 40 North Carolina locals was held at Concord on April 30, 1921. At this conference, the United Textile Workers agreed to lead the strike, and the representatives of the local unions agreed to waive their right to strike benefits. The national union promised such financial assistance as its funds would permit.³⁴

About 9,000 workers answered the strike call on June 1, 1921. Mills in Charlotte, Rock Hill, Huntersville, Concord, and Kannapolis were affected. The mills were under no pressure to reopen. After the strike had continued for some weeks, an antiunion publicity campaign was inaugurated. For over 2 months, however, the strikers stood firm. Then the Governor dispatched troops to Concord and Kannapolis to restrain picketing, although no violence had occurred. The workers drifted back to the struck mills. By the end of August the strike was completely over. The workers went back under the wage rates prevailing when the strike was called. The union lost most of its membership. Thus ended the war and postwar boom period of textile unionism in the South.

COAL MINING, STEEL, AND OTHER INDUSTRIES

The World War I period provided a fresh opportunity for the United Mine Workers in the Alabama coal fields. In 1917, the union reentered the district. After building an appreciable membership, the union secured wage increases through strike action. Union recognition was not obtained.

Alabama miners participated in the national coal strike that began on November 1, 1919. A commission, appointed by President Wilson to study the situation and make an award, granted an increase in wages and urged the Alabama operators to "arrange to meet with

³⁴ Mitchell, op. cit. (pp. 51-52).

representatives of the miners and put into effect the award." Apparently, most of the operators were willing to grant the wage increase, but they were not willing to establish contractual relations with the union. The United Mine Workers, however, insisted upon the creation of joint machinery for the settlement of disputes. The national officers of the union ordered a State-wide strike for September 7, 1920.

About 12,000 of the 27,000 coal miners in Alabama at that time walked out. About three-fourths of the strikers were Negroes. There was a good deal of disorder, and the National Guard was sent into the fields shortly after the dispute began. "The Alabama scene," according to Spero and Harris, "was as primitive and brutal as any of the earlier coal tragedies in which white men had been the sole participants."³⁵

After 5 months, the strike began to weaken, although most of the men still held out. At this point, the union and the operators agreed to arbitrate the issues in dispute: (1) union recognition; (2) abolition of subcontract system; (3) reemployment of strikers; (4) readjustment of the day wage rate; (5) machinery for the settlement of disputes. The Governor of Alabama, who served as sole arbitrator, ruled against the union on every point. He held that the operators were under no obligation to reemploy striking miners. This award spelled temporarily the end of organization among the Alabama coal miners. After having spent 3 million dollars in Alabama, the United Mine Workers found itself with only a handful of determined unionists retaining membership cards.

Unionism also appeared during this period in the Alabama iron and steel industry. Unions of skilled craftsmen—machinists, sheet-metal workers, electricians, and others—entered the steel mills and metal working shops of the Birmingham district, and obtained a substantial membership. The International Union of Mine, Mill, and Smelter Workers organized the ore mines and also enrolled those workers in the mills who were not included in the various metal-trades unions.

When the companies refused the 8-hour day and other demands put forward by the workers, a general metal-trades strike was called. The strike was not successful. As a result of this defeat, Birmingham took little part in the great steel strike of 1919.³⁶

In 1919, two American Federation of Labor unions—the International Timber Workers Union and the United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners—recruited members among southern logging and sawmill workers. Union activity centered in Bogalusa, La., which was then among the largest lumber centers in the world. The

* Spero and Harris, op. cit. (p. 361).

³⁵ Idem (pp. 247-249).

Timber Workers were active at other points as well. Company opposition was bitter, and union members, both white and Negro, were subject to discrimination. A vigilante group was formed by the anti-union forces. On November 22, 1919, this group entered the union office in Bogalusa, killing Lum Williams of Mississippi, leader of the lumber workers in the Bogalusa area, and two other union men.³⁷ The episode effectively ended organizing efforts in the lumber industry in the South at that time.

Clearly, a fairly extensive labor movement existed in the South during the World War I period. By 1922 or earlier, however, unionism had been liquidated in many of the industries in which substantial strength had been built up during the preceding 6 or 7 years. Cotton textiles, tobacco, iron and steel, and coal mining could muster, at best, a mere handful of union members, and unionism as a positive force had ceased to be of any importance in these industries. A measure of organization which had been built up in the petroleum industry in Texas had evaporated. Furniture and lumber had scarcely been touched by the wartime development. The southern labor movement by 1922 was again composed overwhelmingly of locals of skilled workers, although a residue of influence of factory unionism remained.

Upsurge in Textiles, 1922-29

Union activity in the southern textile industry did not entirely cease after the collapse of the movement in 1921. In a number of places in the South, local labor people managed to keep the spark of unionism alive in the cotton industry. Some help was obtained from the American Federation of Hosiery Workers.³⁸ This union became concerned about 1925 with the development of the full-fashioned hosiery industry in the South.³⁹ After that year, "the union has kept organizers in the South continuously, meeting the industry as it expanded in that section. It has not been content with sending organizers from the North, but has developed a southern leadership which now [1938] makes up the great majority of the southern organizing staff of the Federation."⁴⁰

The textile industry in the South, in contrast with the New England industry, was relatively prosperous during the years following 1922. Union activity reappeared on a small scale in North Carolina. Textile locals were reorganized in Charlotte, Salisbury, and a number

³⁷ Jensen, op. cit. (pp. 91-94).

³⁸ Prior to 1933, when it assumed jurisdiction over seamless hosiery workers, this union was known as the American Federation of Full-Fashioned Hosiery Workers.

³⁹ George W. Taylor: *The Full-Fashioned Hosiery Worker* (Philadelphia, University of Pennsylvania Press, 1931), p. 83.

⁴⁰ Laurence Rogin: *Making History in Hosiery* (Philadelphia, American Federation of Hosiery Workers, 1938), p. 15.

of other towns during 1922 and 1923. Several small strikes occurred in the Charlotte area and in the spring of 1923 many mills raised wages 10 percent or more.⁴¹ In the fall of 1924 the workers in a Lexington, N. C., mill conducted a successful 1-week strike against a wage reduction.⁴² Some gains were made through a strike of unorganized workers in the spring of 1925 at a cotton mill in Wilmington, N. C.⁴³ There were several other small strikes in North Carolina in 1925 and 1926.

An important dispute began on August 4, 1927, when the unorganized employees of a cotton mill in Henderson, N. C., walked out. These workers were attempting to obtain restoration of a wage cut made in 1924; they complained also about the condition of the mill houses and other matters. The strikers were aided by an organizer for the hosiery workers, and aroused the interest of officials of the State Federation of Labor. The walk-out lasted for about a month. Under threat of eviction from company houses, the workers returned to their jobs.⁴⁴ The dispute revived the whole question of textile unionism in the Upper Piedmont, and led to the formation late in 1927 of the Piedmont Organizing Council under the leadership of Alfred Hoffman of the hosiery workers. This group, in cooperation with local unions and city central bodies, conducted general union propaganda. Southern delegates to the 1928 convention of the American Federation of Labor laid plans for a union drive. Thus, toward the end of the decade, signs pointed to an expansion of union activity.

In the meantime, a new grievance had developed. In New England, industrial rationalization was being utilized in an effort to arrest the decline in cotton manufacturing in that area.⁴⁵ Southern mill management could not be indifferent to this new development. Consequently, the installation of efficiency systems in the South became widespread. The new production methods frequently were introduced quite abruptly, often without adequate technical preparation. Little effort was made to enlist the cooperation of the mill workers. The operatives themselves called the new techniques the "stretch-out" and added another grievance to the list that included low wages and long hours. The "stretch-out" was a contributing factor of considerable importance in the series of explosive strikes in 1929.

In 1929 cotton-mill strikes occurred in Gastonia and Marion, N. C., and at a number of places in South Carolina—Ware Shoals, Green-

⁴¹ American Federationist, July 1923 (p. 593); Mitchell, op. cit. (pp. 57-58).

⁴² Idem, December 1924 (p. 1001).

⁴³ Idem, April 1925 (pp. 268-269).

⁴⁴ News and Observer (Raleigh, N. C.), August 11-September 10, 1927; Mitchell, op. cit. (pp. 61-62).

⁴⁵ During the 1920's, the cotton manufacturing industry in New England was cut down by bankruptcy and voluntary liquidation. On the other hand, well over a million spindles, with a proportionate amount of complementary machinery, were added to southern equipment between 1923 and 1929. During the latter year, southern mills accounted for 76.3 percent of total cotton consumption in the United States.

ville, Woodruff, Central, Anderson, and Union. In addition, a bitter dispute in the rayon industry took place at Elizabethhton, Tenn. These stoppages cannot be described in detail, owing to space limitations, but their chief characteristics should be briefly noted.

The Loray mill in Gastonia, N. C., was selected by the National Textile Workers' Union, a Communist-controlled organization affiliated with the Trade Union Unity League,⁴⁶ as the first objective in a drive for southern membership. Organization work began in January 1929. In this mill, an intensive drive to lower production costs had begun in 1927, with the result that "although expenses decreased and production mounted, to the great satisfaction of the board of directors, the operatives reacted violently against the new system and the man who inaugurated it."⁴⁷ Worker discontent became so great that the company in late 1928 replaced its resident manager and promised to lessen the intensity of the efficiency program.

The National Textile Workers' Union apparently was able to recruit membership rapidly in this situation. On March 25, 1929, five active unionists were discharged. The strike began on April 1, when approximately 1,800 of the 2,000 workers left the mill. The strike did not last effectively for much more than 2 weeks. After the first few days, the workers began to drift back to the mill, although the mill remained somewhat handicapped in its operations until the latter part of May.

The economic demands of the strikers received no consideration.⁴⁸ The political beliefs of the strike leadership were made the central issue and the State militia was sent into the community. Strikers were roughly handled, union headquarters were wrecked, workers were evicted from company-owned houses, and the dispute ended in a paroxysm of violence.

In Marion, N. C., another bitter dispute occurred, under the leadership of the United Textile Workers of the American Federation of Labor.⁴⁹ The strike began on July 11, when 650 operatives of the East Marion Manufacturing Co. walked out. For a time, the workers of the nearby Clinchfield Manufacturing Co. were also involved. This strike was related directly to the "stretch-out." When the superintendent of the East Marion mill added 20 minutes to the

⁴⁶ The Trade Union Unity League and the unions affiliated with it were later disbanded after a change in Communist Party lines on trade-union tactics.

⁴⁷ Robin Hood: *The Loray Mill Strike* (unpublished M. A. thesis, University of North Carolina, 1932, p. 25). This thesis contains perhaps the best account of the Gastonia strike. See also B. U. Ratchford: *Economic Aspects of the Gastonia Situation* (in *Social Forces*, March 1930); Tom Tippett: *When Southern Labor Stirs* (New York, Jonathan Cape and Harrison Smith, 1931), chapter 6; and Mitchell, op. cit. (pp. 70-75).

⁴⁸ The union demands included (1) a minimum wage of \$20 per week, (2) the 40-hour week, (3) better working conditions, (4) the addition of screens and bathrooms to the company houses, and (5) union recognition.

⁴⁹ See Tippett, op. cit., chapters 7-8.

10-hour work-shift to recoup installation losses for which the management was responsible, a committee of operatives sought union assistance. As in Gastonia, the strike was called when the mill began discharging active unionists. A month later, workers at the two Clinchfield mills were locked out. The lock-out was converted into a strike.

The strike lasted for 3 months. It was called off after troops had stopped all forms of union activity and after a conference had been arranged to work out a settlement. A "gentlemen's agreement" was reached at the conference for (1) a trial reduction in the length of the workweek (to 55 hours); (2) the reemployment of all but a few of the strikers; and (3) the election of worker committees to deal with management. The reemployment provisions of this agreement were not kept. The situation was particularly bad at the East Marion plant. On October 1, the night shift walked out. When the day shift appeared, armed deputies inside the mill released tear gas and fired at the workers. Six strikers were killed and 30 wounded. Seven deputies were tried for murder; all were acquitted; four union men, on the basis of an earlier minor incident, were subsequently convicted of rioting. This ended the union effort at Marion.⁵⁰

The 1929 stoppages in South Carolina were largely spontaneous and in some instances the workers indicated that they did not desire union participation. About 1,200 workers quit successfully at Ware Shoals in March in protest against a recently installed efficiency system. A short strike at Pelzer was settled at a conference of the strike committee and the mill management. A long dispute in four plants of the same company in Greenville and Woodruff ended without substantial gain for the workers. A 1-day strike against the "stretch-out" was settled favorably at Central. Other strikes occurred at Anderson and Union.

There were no union organizers on the scene on March 12, 1929, when 5,000 employees of the Bemberg-Glanzstoff rayon companies in the mountain town of Elizabethton, Tenn., began their walk-out. Not until the dispute got under way were requests for organizers sent to the American Federation of Labor. Low wages, long hours,⁵¹ and the stretch-out were among the causes of discontent. The strikers demanded a 25-percent wage increase and union recognition. Injunctions were issued against the strikers and troops were sent in.

The strike ended after 11 days. The companies agreed to equalize the wages of men in the two plants, to raise the wages of women by about 20 percent, and to meet with employee committees over grievances. The union was not recognized.

⁵⁰ As a result of the strike, hours were reduced. A sewer system and plumbing were installed in the East Marion village. The Clinchfield mills granted a small wage increase.

⁵¹ Average weekly wages were about \$15 for males and \$10 to \$11 for females for a 56-hour week.

Shortly after the end of the strike, many active unionists were discharged. On April 3, two union men, including the personal representative of President Green of the American Federation of Labor, were kidnapped in Elizabethton and carried from the State. They returned several days later accompanied by President Green. A mass discharge of unionists occurred on April 15 and 4,000 workers walked out in a second strike. Again troops were brought in and a considerable amount of violence developed. The union's funds were not adequate for the relief problem created by the strike. The strikers began drifting back to work and on May 25 a settlement was negotiated. This settlement again did not include union recognition.

After the strike, a company union was installed and an elaborate company welfare program inaugurated. The United Textile Workers tried unsuccessfully to hold its membership. An abortive strike took place in March 1930, marking the final collapse of the union in Elizabethton.

The 1930 Organizing Campaign

Tremendous enthusiasm for a southern organizing campaign was displayed at the 1929 convention of the American Federation of Labor.⁵² The executive council of the Federation reported: "These workers in the South are poor and they have suffered much by the recent strikes. It will take time to develop self-supporting unions. Responsibility for establishing higher wages and better conditions of employment must rest with the national and international unions."⁵³ A resolution for an organizing campaign introduced by the United Textile Workers was adopted.

The drive got under way on January 6, 1930, at a large conference in Charlotte, N. C. Among those at the conference were 229 delegates from southern unions, organizers from 26 national unions and the Federation, delegates from seven State federations and from a number of city central bodies, and local workers from 95 different crafts. It was decided to establish headquarters at Birmingham, and a coordinating committee of three was selected. At the height of the drive, more than 50 organizers were in the field.⁵⁴

Part of the initial strategy of the campaign was to convince employers of the advantages of trade-unionism. During the years of relative economic stability following 1922, the labor movement had become increasingly interested in union-management cooperation and in production problems. The United Textile Workers itself had par-

⁵² A. F. of L. Proceedings, 1929 (pp. 225-283).

⁵³ Idem (p. 60).

⁵⁴ Idem, 1930 (pp. 85-86).

ticipated in a union-management cooperation effort since 1924 in the Naumkeag Steam Cotton Mills at Salem, Mass.⁵⁶

At least at this time the union-management cooperation idea failed to appeal to either employers or workers in the South.⁵⁷ Therefore, a more militant approach was adopted. Two factors served as barriers to success. The first was the general business depression beginning in the fall of 1929. In the second place, the union resources available for the campaign were not large. Despite these obstacles, 112 new local unions had been organized in the South by September 1930; 81 of these locals were in industries other than textiles.⁵⁸ The 31 new locals of the United Textile Workers were found in Virginia, North and South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, and Tennessee.

The strength of cotton unionism was in the upper Piedmont. In North Carolina, the union signed up large numbers of workers at the Marshall Field mills in Leaksville-Spray and Draper, and at the great Cone mills in Greensboro. In Danville, Va., the union built up a substantial membership at the Riverside and Dan River Cotton Mills.

The test came at Danville, where the unqualified refusal of the company to deal with the union made a stoppage almost inevitable. For months, the mill refused to meet with union representatives; during the same period active union workers were being discharged. The national convention of the United Textile Workers authorized a strike and 95 percent of the union members in Danville voted for a walk-out. The strike of 4,000 workers began on September 29, 1930.

The strike had substantial support from the community at large. All offers of mediation were refused by the company. Injunctions restrained effective picketing. Strikebreakers were imported. Minor acts of violence occurred and State troops were sent in. Eviction notices were issued. The relief problem faced by the union increased in seriousness as the months passed.

The strike was broken after 5 months. The Danville defeat marked the end of the southern organizing campaign.⁵⁹ Textile-union membership elsewhere in the South melted away, although the United Textile Workers retained a small following in the region.⁶⁰ The deepening economic depression provided poor soil for new union growth.

⁵⁶ See Richmond C. Nyman and Elliott Dunlap Smith: *Union-Management Cooperation in the "Stretch-Out"* (New Haven, Yale University Press, 1934) for a detailed account of the Naumkeag experiment.

⁵⁷ Jean Carol Trepp: *Union-Management Cooperation and the Southern Organizing Campaign* (in *Journal of Political Economy*, October 1933).

⁵⁸ A. F. of L. Proceedings, 1930 (p. 86).

⁵⁹ See Tippett, op. cit., chapter 10; Herbert J. Lahne: *The Cotton Mill Worker* (New York, Farrar & Rinehart, 1944, pp. [221-224].

⁶⁰ See reports in the *Textile Worker*, 1932.

Labor Unrest in Depression

The depression did provide the occasion for two instances of largely unorganized labor revolt in the South. During the summer and fall of 1932, a series of strikes swept over North Carolina.⁶⁰ The ranks of the strikers were composed of seamless-hosiery workers, full-fashioned hosiery workers, silk workers, cotton-mill operatives, and furniture workers.

On July 18, 1932, a few hundred stocking boarders walked out of six hosiery mills at High Point, N. C. The walk-out was in protest against a drastic wage reduction, the second of the year. The movement spread until 24 hosiery mills employing 5,000 seamless-hosiery workers were closed.⁶¹ After 10 days, the dispute was settled by the restoration of the wage cut and certain other concessions.

On August 23, workers in three cotton mills in Rockingham walked out. The demands included restoration of two wage cuts made during the year, the 10-hour day, and a reduction in the rent of company-owned houses. Railroad union locals in Spencer and Hamlet, textile workers in Salisbury, and farmers from the surrounding countryside provided food for the strikers. The stoppage lasted for almost 2 months. None of the strikers' objectives were gained except the reinstatement of all employees. Other North Carolina strikes during this period involved 600 full-fashioned hosiery workers in High Point, about the same number of cotton-mill workers in a mill village near High Point, 500 employees of a silk works in High Point, and a thousand furniture workers in Thomasville.

Walk-outs during 1932 were largely spontaneous. The seamless-hosiery workers in High Point formed an independent union during their strike; this unaffiliated union had a checkered career for several years and then expired. In Rockingham, an independent union was formed just prior to the strike and collapsed when the walk-out failed. Some workers in High Point joined the American Federation of Full-Fashioned Hosiery Workers and the American Federation of Silk Workers.

Over in the Kentucky coal country, where unionism had never developed, revolt also flared over the conditions produced by wage cuts and part-time work during the depression. Discharges for union activity accompanied the beginnings of unionization. In April 1931, 18,000 miners walked out under the leadership of the United Mine Workers. After a gun battle between miners and deputies at Evarts, the militia was sent into Harlan County. The leadership of the

⁶⁰ For a detailed account of these stoppages see H. M. Douty: *Labor Unrest in North Carolina, 1932* (*In Social Forces*, May 1933).

⁶¹ Owing mainly to the action of roving bands of unemployed workers, over 150 industrial plants in and around High Point were closed for a few days.

strike shifted to the Industrial Workers of the World. The strike was broken. An attempt by the Communist National Miners' Union to call a strike in neighboring Bell County on January 1, 1932, failed.

The NRA Period

These labor disputes, and others of lesser significance, revealed the existence of deep unrest. With the passage in 1933 of the National Industrial Recovery Act, which guaranteed in section 7 (a) to labor the right to bargain collectively through representatives of its own choosing, large numbers of workers in the South and elsewhere crowded into unions. As it turned out, the labor provisions of the Recovery Act were not highly effective because of the lack of adequate enforcement machinery. However, the collective-bargaining clause of the act, together with a measure of industrial recovery, unquestionably gave rise to a great upsurge of union activity.

Some unions were more active during the NRA period than others. The United Mine Workers, for example, sent a corps of organizers into the coal country. The third major attempt to organize the Alabama field began in the summer of 1933. By 1935 the union had more than 23,000 members in Alabama, more than half of whom were colored. On May 26, 1937, the United Mine Workers signed contracts with every mine in the State.⁶² The miners' union also obtained a large membership in Tennessee. In August 1938, the Harlan County Coal Operators' Association signed the standard Appalachian agreement, thus ending an era in the history of "bloody Harlan."⁶³

The tobacco workers' union extended its influence during this period. As early as November 1933, the union reported that 90 percent of the white workers in the cigarette department of the American Tobacco Co. in Durham, N. C., had joined the organization.⁶⁴ By the summer of 1934, the white employees of Liggett and Myers in Durham had also organized, and there was union membership in Reidsville and Winston-Salem. The union also established locals in Virginia. Negro tobacco workers were drawn into the movement, but were not at this time effectively integrated into the union. By the end of the NRA period, the union had a contract with the Brown and Williamson Tobacco Co. and with a number of smaller firms,⁶⁵ and apparently exerted some influence on the major companies.

⁶² United Mine Workers Journal, June and July 1937.

⁶³ Idem, October 1938.

⁶⁴ Union Herald (Raleigh, N. C.), November 2, 1933.

⁶⁵ Herbert R. Northrup: The Tobacco Workers International Union (*Quarterly Journal of Economics*, August 1942). This article contains an excellent account of the development of the union, including an analysis of the internal struggle that resulted in a change in national leadership in 1939.

Although some unionism developed in the southern iron and steel industry during the NRA period, the movement was not strong enough to exert much influence on labor relations. Some union locals were formed among Alabama ore miners. The petroleum industry in the Southwest was penetrated for the first time since the World War I period. Union activity in the southern lumber and furniture industries was meager. On the other hand, many of the workers in the semiskilled and skilled trades were organized in most of the southern cities, some for the first time. Many city central bodies were revived, some new ones organized, and functioning city centrals greatly strengthened.

The most spectacular development in southern unionism during the NRA period occurred in cotton textiles. The United Textile Workers quickly gained a substantial membership in cotton mills throughout the region; the hosiery workers' union also was active. Discharges for union activity and other violations of the labor provisions of the NRA were numerous. The "stretch-out" problem was intensified by the efforts of mill managements to cut costs in face of the minimum-wage and maximum-hour provisions of the cotton-textile code. Scattered local strikes did not prove effective in improving conditions in the industry. At the union convention in August 1934, delegates from the South joined with delegates from New England in calling for a general strike. The convention fixed September 1 as the date for the stoppage.

Unsuccessful efforts were made to forestall the strike. On September 1, about 100,000 cotton operatives in the South walked out. At its peak, the workers on strike in the South numbered about 170,000.⁶⁶ Shortly after the beginning of the strike, President Roosevelt appointed a board of inquiry. This board recommended: (1) that a new textile labor relations board be appointed; (2) that the Federal Trade Commission investigate the ability of the industry to support a higher wage structure; (3) that the cotton, wool, and silk codes be amended to permit the functioning of a special committee to regulate the "stretch-out"; (4) that a study be made by the U. S. Department of Labor of occupational wage rates in the industry.

On the basis of these recommendations, the United Textile Workers called off the strike on September 22. Subsequently, President Roosevelt appointed a textile labor relations board to investigate alleged violations of section 7 (a) of the NRA, to arbitrate questions voluntarily submitted, and to exercise such functions as might be granted by code provision. This board appointed a special committee

⁶⁶ The vast majority of those on strike in the South were cotton-textile workers. The strike was extended to the wool and worsted, silk, hosiery, and miscellaneous textile industries, but these industries (except hosiery) were very thinly represented in the South.

to investigate the subject of the "stretch-out." The Bureau of Labor Statistics initiated a survey of hours and earnings in the principal textile industries and the Federal Trade Commission began a survey of the financial condition of textile enterprises.

This greatest of all textile strikes brought few tangible or immediate gains to the workers. The companies did not recognize the union, wages remained unchanged, and, as it turned out, the new textile board was no more effective than the old in protecting the right of workers to organize and bargain collectively. The use of the "stretch out" was apparently tempered. The workers themselves interpreted the result as a defeat. Many were refused employment at the end of the strike, and union membership declined sharply during the months that followed.

The textile strike marked the high tide of unionism in the South during the NRA period. Loss of the strike had unfavorable repercussions upon union organization in other industries. In textiles, however, the union retained part of its membership, and gains in other industries by no means disappeared. When the NRA (in May 1935) was declared unconstitutional, the labor movement in the South was considerably stronger than it had been 2 years earlier.⁶⁷

*National Labor Relations Act, Union Rivalry, and War Years 1935-45*⁶⁸

Two developments in 1935 were to have great significance for the labor movement in the South and elsewhere.

Less than 2 months after the invalidation of NRA, the National Labor Relations Act became law. One of the purposes of this act was to continue and strengthen the collective-bargaining provisions of section 7 (a) of the National Recovery Act. The act asserted that employees in industries under its jurisdiction had the right to self-organization, and employers were forbidden to engage in certain "unfair labor practices" that tended to discourage union membership. The act also placed upon employers the duty to bargain collectively with representatives freely chosen by their employees. The effective administration of the act was initially hampered by the question of constitutionality; this question was resolved in April 1937.⁶⁹

⁶⁷ Labor organization in southern agriculture is not covered in this article. It should be noted, however, that the Southern Tenant Farmers Union (now the National Farm Labor Union affiliated with the American Federation of Labor) was formed in 1934. For an exhaustive account of farm labor unionism in the South see Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 836, *Labor Unionism in American Agriculture* (pp. 256-355).

⁶⁸ The writer is indebted to the Union and Management Research Division of the Bureau's Industrial Relations Branch for assistance with this section.

⁶⁹ *Associated Press v. National Labor Relations Board*, 301 U. S. 103; *National Labor Relations Board v. Jones F. Laughlin Steel Corp.*, 301 U. S. 1; *National Labor Relations Board v. Fruehauf Trailer Co.*, 301 U. S. 49; *National Labor Relations Board v. Friedman-Harry Marks Clothing Co.*, 301 U. S. 58; *Washington, Virginia & Maryland Coach Co. v. National Labor Relations Board*, 301 U. S. 142.

Shortly after the 1935 convention of the American Federation of Labor, a group of union leaders formed the Committee for Industrial Organization (CIO). This action represented almost the last stage in a long conflict within the Federation over the appropriate form of union organization for the mass-production industries. Involved were the jurisdictional claims of the craft unions in the steel, automotive, rubber, and similar industries. A substantial minority opinion within the Federation held that such industries could only be effectively organized on an industrial basis.

Almost immediately after the organization of the Committee, requests for organizing assistance began to pour in from workers in many industries, and the Committee was soon carrying on a tremendous organizing campaign. In 1938, the Committee became the Congress of Industrial Organizations, thus creating a rival to the existing labor federation.⁷⁰

In terms of the southern labor movement, the most outstanding action of the CIO was the creation, in March 1937, of the Textile Workers Organizing Committee in agreement with the United Textile Workers.⁷¹ In the organizing campaign that followed, the TWOC proceeded cautiously, utilizing fully the procedures of the National Labor Relations Act. Strikes were avoided wherever possible. A recession in business activity, beginning in the fall of 1937 and lasting into 1938, tended to slow the drive.

As of May 31, 1941, the Textile Workers Union (CIO), which had grown out of the Organizing Committee,⁷² had won National Labor Relations Board representation elections in 46 southern cotton mills employing over 32,000 workers; in addition, the union had been certified without elections as collective-bargaining agent in five southern mills. In these 51 mills, however, the union had been able to secure actual collective-bargaining agreements in only 29. As of May 31, 1941, the union had 23 collective agreements covering over 17,000 workers with southern cotton mills.⁷³

After 1941, the union advance continued slowly. Contracts were signed with a number of the larger mills, including the Erwin Cotton Mills and the Kendall Mills. An important election, and subsequently

⁷⁰ An excellent brief account of the formation of the CIO may be found in Harry A. Mills and Royal E. Montgomery: *The Economics of Labor: Organized Labor* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1945), III (pp. 201-242).

⁷¹ In 1939, a group of locals of the United Textile Workers was reinvested with the charter of that organization by the American Federation of Labor. In the same year the Textile Workers Organization Committee and the majority group in the United Textile Workers united to form the Textile Workers Union of America (CIO). Thus, at the present time both the AFL and the CIO have unions competing for membership in the textile industry. See Herbert J. Lahne: *The Cotton Mill Worker* (New York, Farrar & Rinehart, 1944), pp. 262-269, 273-277.

⁷² See preceding footnote.

⁷³ Lahne, op. cit. (pp. 270-271).

an agreement, was won at the Riverside and Dan River Cotton Mills.⁷⁴ The tempo of the union's activity in the South during 1943-46 can be gauged from the report of its executive council to the fourth biennial convention: "The union's organizational progress in the South continued slowly but certainly. From Virginia to Alabama we picked up mill after mill during the 3 years, all but a few of them cotton mills. TWUA also invaded Texas for the first time, winning elections in 11 mills in the eastern part of the State. . . . In point of numbers, workers organized during the 3 years in the South were principally concentrated in North Carolina and Georgia."⁷⁵ It was stated that 20 percent of the southern cotton and rayon workers were represented by the Textile Workers Union.⁷⁶

Meantime, the United Textile Workers (AFL), which was reconstituted in 1939, also made some progress in the South. By September 30, 1942, the UTW had won bargaining rights in nine southern cotton mills employing almost 6,000 workers⁷⁷ and additional gains were made later.⁷⁸ Membership in the United Textile Workers nationally has increased rapidly from a very small number in 1939.⁷⁹ The bulk of the membership in both AFL and CIO unions at present is in branches of the industry other than cotton.

With respect to the South, the existing situation is different from any existing in the past. Cotton unionism is functioning in the South; a number of mills, including some very large units, are under contract.⁸⁰ Nationally, textile unionism has never been stronger. However, the bulk of the industry in the South remains unorganized.

As previously stated, the Tobacco Workers International Union (AFL) concluded collective-bargaining agreements with a number of companies in the industry during the NRA period. In 1937, after the validation of the National Labor Relations Act by the Supreme Court, the union negotiated agreements with Liggett and Myers, American Tobacco Co., and Philip Morris covering workers in their North Carolina and Virginia plants. In 1940, after a hard fight, agreements were signed with P. Lorillard Co. for employees in Louisville, Ky., and in New Jersey.⁸¹ The Food, Tobacco, Agricultural and

⁷⁴ Textile Workers Union of America, Third Biennial Convention, 1943, Proceedings (pp. 121-122).

⁷⁵ *Idem*, Fourth Biennial Convention, 1946, Executive Council Report (pp. 46-47).

⁷⁶ *Idem* (p. 49).

⁷⁷ Lahne, *op. cit.* (p. 275).

⁷⁸ See the *Textile Challenger*, official organ of the union.

⁷⁹ When rechartered in 1939 by the American Federation of Labor, membership in the United Textile Workers was only 1,500. See Anthony Valente: *Let's Talk About Textiles* (in *American Federationist*, April 1946, pp. 16-17).

⁸⁰ For an analysis of union agreements in cotton manufacturing in 1945, see Rose Theodore: *Union Agreements in the Cotton Textile Industry* (in *Monthly Labor Review*, March 1946, pp. 413-423).

⁸¹ John O'Hare: *The Tobacco Worker* (in *American Federationist*, June 1946, p. 22). See also Herbert R. Northup: *Tobacco Workers International Union* (in *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, August 1942, pp. 615-616).

Allied Workers Union (CIO) has some membership in the industry, notably at the large Winston-Salem, N. C., plant of the R. J. Reynolds Tobacco Co.

By the close of 1944, approximately 90 percent of the workers in the industry (cigarettes, chewing and smoking tobacco, and snuff) were employed in plants which had trade-union agreements. Agreements negotiated by the Tobacco Workers International Union covered almost three-fourths of the organized workers. In the cigar industry, about half the workers were organized in 1944. The Cigar Makers' International Union (AFL) had its major strength in the Florida area; most of the cigar workers under agreement with the Food, Tobacco, Agricultural and Allied Workers (CIO) were employed outside the region.⁸²

Possibly the most dramatic of all the CIO organizing campaigns—in the steel industry⁸³—started in 1936. In March 1937, a formal agreement was signed between the Steel Workers Organizing Committee and various subsidiaries of the United States Steel Corp., including the Tennessee Coal, Iron and Railroad Co. in Birmingham. By this agreement the union was recognized as the collective-bargaining agent only for those employees who were its members. In Birmingham, about 5 years elapsed before the union, in a series of representation elections under the National Labor Relations Act, obtained sole bargaining rights. By 1943, however, steel unionism was well established in Birmingham. In addition to Tennessee Coal and Iron, the union (now the United Steel Workers) has won bargaining rights in other iron and steel plants in Alabama and in metal fabricating plants, as well. Iron-ore miners in the Birmingham area are represented by the International Union of Mine, Mill and Smelter Workers (CIO).

The union situation in other industries is briefly noted. A very substantial organization has been built up in the southern pulp and paper industry by the Pulp, Sulphite and Paper Mill Workers (AFL). Most employees of the Tennessee Valley Authority work under agreements negotiated with the Authority by various unions affiliated with the AFL.⁸⁴ In 1944, the United Rubber Workers (CIO) had 11 agreements and 9 locals in the South.⁸⁵ The locals were situated in Alabama, Georgia, Tennessee, Virginia, North Carolina, and Kentucky. By 1942, the Oil Workers International Union (CIO)

⁸² Eleanor T. Royer: *Union Agreements in the Tobacco Industry* (U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Bulletin No. 847, 1945), pp. 1-2, 13-14.

⁸³ A good account of the organizing campaign in steel may be found in Frederick H. Harbison's "Steel," in Harry A. Millis (ed.): *How Collective Bargaining Works* (New York, Twentieth Century Fund, 1942), pp. 510-534.

⁸⁴ *American Federationist*, January 1943 (p. 21).

⁸⁵ *United Rubber Workers, Officers' Report, Ninth Annual Convention, 1944* (pp. 29-31, 40-43).

had 28 working agreements in the petroleum industry in Louisiana and Texas.⁸⁶ In 1943, the organizing work of the union was revitalized, and material progress was reported at subsequent conventions.

The National Federation of Telephone Workers (independent) had more than 13,000 members in 1944 in its Southern Federation of Telephone Workers (covering the territory of Southern Bell in 9 Southeastern States, including Louisiana).⁸⁷ The union also had members in Texas. For a decade, the Amalgamated Clothing Workers (CIO) has conducted active organizational work in the men's clothing industry, primarily cotton garments, in the South, and has built up an appreciable membership. The United Garment Workers (AFL) also has membership in the region. The International Ladies Garment Workers Union (AFL) reported more than 11,000 members in some 60 locals in its Southwestern District in 1944.⁸⁸ Apparently, this district covers part of Illinois and Missouri, in addition to Texas, Arkansas, and Tennessee. Locals of the union are also found at Atlanta, Knoxville, and elsewhere in the Southeast. As of 1944, the United Automobile Workers (CIO) had 31 plants under contract in the South.⁸⁹ Most of these plants were engaged in turning out war materials, including aircraft. The enormous expansion of the southern shipbuilding industry during the war was accompanied by extensive organization, principally by AFL affiliates. Longshore organization also increased.

It is clear that union organization in the South is substantial in character and is no longer restricted to its traditional spheres in railroading, printing, and a few other industries. Much of the present organization, of course, has developed during very recent years, and its stability, in many cases, has yet to be tested. The existing position has been reached, as this article in very summary terms has attempted to show, after a comparatively long period marked by many sacrifices on the part of labor and in spite of bitter defeats. The persistence of the efforts of workers in the South to organize reflects the importance attached by workers to the role that trade-unionism can play in modern industrial society.

Even during World War II years, the great lumber industry in the South remained virtually untouched by union organization. The bulk of the southern textile industry is unorganized. In the furniture

⁸⁶ Oil Workers' International Union, Reports of the Executive Council, Thirteenth Convention, 1942 (pp. 16-17).

⁸⁷ National Federation of Telephone Workers, Executive Board Report, Tenth National Assembly, 1944, Appendix A.

⁸⁸ International Ladies Garment Workers Union, Report of General Executive Board, Twenty-fifth Convention, 1944 (p. 115).

⁸⁹ United Automobile Workers, Report entitled "Automobile Unionism" submitted to 1944 convention by R. J. Thomas (pp. 26c, 30c).

and chemical industries unionism is weak. Food-processing has been largely untouched, together with a great variety of service trades and many miscellaneous manufacturing industries.

Organizing Campaign of 1946

A new chapter in the history of southern trade-unionism began in the spring of 1946, when both the CIO and the AFL announced plans for major organizing campaigns in the South.²⁰ Both organizations reported progress by late summer, but no appraisal is yet possible of the results of these efforts to extend labor organization in the region.

Some Factors in Southern Unionism

Historically, unionism in the South has reflected the strength and weakness of organized labor in the country as a whole. The relative size of the southern movement, its scope, and its structure have been determined, in part, by the size, scope, and structure of the labor movement nationally. In 1929, for example, southern organization was comparatively meager. In that year, however, only 10.9 percent of the employed wage earners in manufacturing in the country as a whole were organized, and this figure includes the railroad shop crafts.²¹ Moreover, 71.5 percent of all trade-union members in 1929 were in five industry groups—mining, building, transportation, clothing, and paper and printing.²²

Unquestionably unionism in the South has had—and to some extent still has—greater obstacles to overcome than unionism in most other parts of the country. The retarding factors listed below, however, are not to be regarded as characteristic exclusively of the South. They exist in some measure elsewhere in the Nation.

(1) Industrialism on a substantial scale in the South is comparatively recent. Many of those who now compose the industrial working force have come direct from farms; many others are only one generation removed from the land. Strong unionism requires sustained collective action, and the habits and attitudes that promote such action grow in part out of the discipline that industry itself imposes. As urban-industrial behavior patterns more and more supplant agrarian behavior patterns among southern workers, cohesive unionization may more easily be achieved.

(2) Many groups of southern workers occupy an exposed position and are difficult to organize because of the pressure on industrial-job

* A convenient statement of CIO objectives may be found in the May 1946 issue of its *Economic Outlook*. The AFL drive was opened at a large conference in Asheville, N. C., in May 1946. See Report, Third Biennial Southern Labor Conference.

** Leo Wolman: *Ebb and Flow in Trade Unionism* (New York, National Bureau of Economic Research, 1936), p. 123.

*** Idem (p. 87).

opportunities of large numbers of desperately poor people from the agricultural areas. The labor market has rarely been firm in the South except in time of war. During the next decade or two, the competition for industrial jobs may increase depending upon (a) the rate at which agricultural labor is displaced because of technological and market factors; (b) the rate at which job opportunities in southern industry are created; (c) the rate at which migration out of the South takes place.⁹³

(3) Historically, the company-owned town has been another obstacle to union advance. This factor has been highly important in the textile industries; it has been important also in coal mining and some other industries. The significance of the company-owned town as a barrier to unionism was reduced substantially with the passage of the National Labor Relations Act.

Another locational factor is the extent to which industry in the South is dispersed over a wide geographic area. Southern industry characteristically is located in small and medium-sized communities. As southern industry continues to develop, this locational pattern undoubtedly will tend to persist. There is much to be said in human terms for the avoidance of huge urban concentrations; the only point being made here is that the scattered nature of southern industry makes the process of union organization more difficult.

(4) The biracial character of the southern labor supply also presents problems in the growth of unionism. Race prejudice has been used to break strikes in the South (and elsewhere) and to keep workers divided along racial lines. There is membership discrimination against Negroes by some unions.

The Negro constitutes a relatively large and permanent part of the southern industrial labor force in such industries as tobacco, lumber, and iron and steel. Successful unionization of such industries will require the organization of colored workers. There is evidence to the effect that workers among both races are beginning to realize that economic cooperation is not only possible, but desirable. As this feeling grows, general racial understanding also tends to increase. Some unions—the United Mine Workers is an example—have done a magnificent job in cementing union bonds among members of the two races.

A number of factors tend to favor union growth: (1) That elusive but important factor, public opinion, is changing. Beginning about 1900, sentiment grew slowly in the South for various forms of labor legislation.⁹⁴ During the 1920's, some southern ministers, editors, and teachers began to voice publicly the belief that workers should

⁹³ See the article *Labor Supply in the South*, page 484 of this issue.

⁹⁴ See the article on *Labor Legislation in the South*, page 535 of this issue.

have the right to join unions if they wished to. After 1929, the reexamination of attitudes on many social problems among large sections of the population accelerated the growth of general tolerance toward union organization. This change in public opinion is more pronounced in some parts of the South than in others. In general, opposition to unions tends to vary inversely with the degree of industrialization.

(2) The southern working class is becoming more mature, in the sense of having more confidence in itself as a group. The nature of unionism is better understood, owing partly to the accumulation of past experience with labor organization and to the growth of union organization during the past decade; partly to the persistence of a general union propaganda in the region coupled with the development of a more favorable public attitude; and partly to the fact that mere participation in industry affords lessons in collective action.

(3) Undoubtedly, a factor of great importance in the South (and elsewhere) is the existence of the National Labor Relations Act. For a long time workers in this country have had the unquestioned legal right to seek collective bargaining by legal means. But until the passage of the National Labor Relations Act in 1935, employers did not have placed upon them the reciprocal duty to enter into collective-bargaining relations. Moreover, through its definition of "unfair labor practices," the act deprived employers of powerful weapons they formerly were able to use to discourage unionization.

(4) A final favorable factor at present is the existence nationally of a stronger trade-union movement than at any time in our history and of greater organization within the South itself than at any previous time. The AFL alone has at least doubled its membership during the past decade, and the CIO has emerged as a powerful trade-union center. The structure of the labor movement has altered profoundly with the rise of industrial unions in the great mass-production industries. As a result, any general organizing campaign in the South is likely now to be better staffed and better financed, and to take advantage of more flexible organizational forms, than any of the earlier campaigns. The assistance that can be expected from those unions already firmly established in the region is also a consideration of material importance.

VII—Cooperatives in the South¹

WITH certain exceptions, the South² has shown comparatively little development in the field of consumers' cooperation. The exceptions are cooperative credit associations (credit unions), students' cooperatives, electricity associations formed under the Rural Electrification Administration program, farmers' associations dealing in petroleum products and home and farm supplies, and medical care. There are, of course, a great many farmers' cooperatives in the South which market their members' farm products or purchase farm supplies (producer goods) for them; such associations are not, however, dealt with in this review unless they also handle consumer goods.

At the end of 1944, the latest date for which information is available, the 13 Southern States under consideration had a total of 1,550 credit unions, or 17 percent of all such associations in the United States; they accounted for about 12 percent of the membership and 10 percent of the total credit union assets. Texas alone had 354 credit cooperatives, and Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, North Carolina, and Tennessee had over 100 each.

The great majority of these credit unions were urban associations with membership largely drawn from industrial and other employees. Considerable numbers of the student cooperatives were also in the cities and large towns. With the exception of these two groups and the relatively small number of urban or nonfarm stores and buying clubs, practically all of the development in these States is in rural areas, among the farmers. As far as the records of the Bureau of Labor Statistics show, in these States only one cooperative has been organized by labor unionists. In July 1946, it is reported, a store association was formed by union oil-field workers in Texas.

In the cooperative provision of medical and hospital care, the South has shown the way to the other sections of the country. This has been due to several circumstances: the need of a group of Cuban cigar makers in Florida for protection against the health hazards of their trade in a community in which they were alien in tongue and customs, which led to the formation of their own medical facilities many years ago; the efforts of a single physician to improve the health of his farmer patients, which resulted in the building of a cooperative hospital in Oklahoma; and the recent passage of a law in Texas authorizing cooperative hospitals in rural communities, which has led to the formation of a score of hospitals during the past year.

During the subsistence-homesteads program, many homesteads projects were established in the South. A usual accompaniment was

¹ Prepared by Florence E. Parker of the Bureau's Labor Economics Staff.

² The term "South" relates to Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, and Virginia.

the formation of a cooperative association which marketed the members' produce or ran a store for supplying groceries and other household goods, or both. The Bureau has no information as to how these associations have fared during the liquidation of the homesteads program.

Development in Individual States

In addition to some 80 credit unions and about 20 electricity associations formed under the Rural Electrification Administration program, *Alabama* has a number of farmers' purchasing associations—one of these among sharecroppers—and several students' cooperatives (including 2 at Tuskegee Institute). Under the Farm Security Administration's subsistence-homesteads program, also, several purchasing associations and health cooperatives were formed among the homesteaders in this State.

As *Arkansas* had an even larger part than Alabama in the FSA program, a considerable number of its cooperatives were those of subsistence homesteaders. Most of these cooperatives carried on the marketing of their members' produce in addition to their consumer activities. A Civilian Public Service (conscientious objectors') Camp in this State had two cooperatives—one buying books only and the other handling groceries and clothing. The State's other consumers' associations included several students' cooperatives and farmers' purchasing associations, 18 REA cooperatives providing electric power, and 28 credit unions.

Florida associations include 170 credit unions, 12 electricity cooperatives, and several subsistence-homesteads cooperatives, and a small number of retail distributive associations. This last group contained (in addition to several farmers' purchasing associations) a students' cooperative, a store at a migratory workers' camp, and one of the oldest Negro cooperatives in the United States. Florida also has a number of associations, formed by cigar makers of Cuban descent, which provide medical and hospital care in their own clinics and hospitals; several of these date from the 1890's and early 1900's. One of the Florida credit unions is reported to have taken a step unusual for such organizations, by buying land on which it is planning to build some 400 houses.

Georgia has 138 credit unions and 44 electricity cooperatives, a unique association dealing only in religious films, and cooperatives in at least five institutions of higher education. Among its retail cooperatives are several formed by residents in low-cost housing projects, and one is in an entirely cooperative community.

The consumers' cooperatives in *Kentucky* consist mainly of credit unions (108 in number) and REA cooperatives (26). The few dis-

tributive associations are those on college campuses (including two in settlement schools) and a few farmers' cooperatives handling petroleum products and/or farm and household supplies.

The consumers' cooperative movement in *Louisiana* includes several cold-storage associations, a few buying clubs and stores, 4 cooperatives at subsistence-homesteads projects, 13 electricity associations, and 145 credit unions.

Cooperatives are few in *Mississippi*. Even the credit unions numbered only 27 in 1944—the lowest of the 13 States here considered. Electricity cooperatives totaled 23 in 1942. Other types include 2 cold-storage associations, 5 homesteads cooperatives, and a few stores; one of the latter is a students' cooperative at a Negro college.

Credit unions are numerous in *North Carolina* (173 in 1944); REA associations (30), students' associations (6), and farmers' purchasing cooperatives (12) have also had a moderate development. One of the farmers' associations is in a community where, with the assistance of a local "folk school," many activities have been organized on a cooperative basis. Perhaps the greatest relative achievement has been among the Negroes; their 5 associations, although not large, have been well supported and have rendered valuable service to their members. At least one of the farmers' purchasing groups and one of the Negro associations have a credit union in connection. Other types of cooperatives in the State include a store at a conscientious objectors' camp and two stores started in connection with FSA homesteads.

In *Oklahoma* nearly all the farmers' purchasing cooperatives handle petroleum products and many deal in groceries; these are, with credit unions, the outstanding types of cooperation, numbering 60 and 75 each. The State also has the one cooperative funeral association in the South, 2 cooperative hospitals, several campus cooperatives and cold-storage associations, and 23 electricity cooperatives.

South Carolina has had comparatively little cooperative development, the representation there consisting of 39 credit unions, 24 REA cooperatives, a few store associations (including one whose members are colored), and several students' associations (2 Negro). The same situation exists in *Tennessee* where, with the exception of 127 credit unions and 19 electricity associations, the consumers' cooperative development consists of several urban or nonfarm buying clubs and stores, one or two campus cooperatives, and a few cold-storage associations.

Among the 13 States here considered, *Texas* is easily preeminent as regards cooperatives. At the end of 1944 it had 354 credit unions, or over twice as many as any of the other 12 States, and 72 REA cooperatives. It also showed an extensive distributive development among the farmers. There were in the State some 50 petroleum asso-

ciations, in addition to many farmers' marketing or purchasing associations which also dealt in petroleum products. It is the only Southern State with a cooperative wholesale of the federated type (i. e., in which the members are retail cooperatives). The wholesale, at Amarillo, has been operating since 1931, and until a few years ago dealt almost wholly in petroleum products. Within the past few years it had been adding new lines, has opened up two branch warehouses in order to serve its large territory better, and has expanded into production. It now owns an oil-compounding plant, a feed mill and grain elevator, and a petroleum refinery. It is affiliated with National Cooperatives, the central purchasing agency of the consumers' cooperative movement in this country. Under the guidance of the wholesale, the affiliated retail associations in Texas have been diversifying their activities; many now handle groceries and various other merchandise.

As already noted, Texas now leads the United States in number of cooperative hospital associations. By June 1946 there were at least 20 of these. Although one of these associations was organized in 1940 and opened its hospital in 1942, the rest have been formed during the past year. This is the result of an act passed by the Texas Legislature in 1945, which authorized the formation of cooperative hospitals in places of 2,500 or less. Most of the associations thus far formed plan to extend their service over the entire county in which the headquarters is located.

In addition to the above types, Texas also has some 10 students' cooperatives, the greatest development of which is at Texas A & M College where one association operates 25 rooming and boarding houses for students. Another students' association operates a flying (aviation) service. In the State there are also perhaps a score of cold-storage associations, in addition to a number of locker plants operated by associations whose main line of activity is marketing or purchasing. Texas also has a unique recreation cooperative—an association which purchased land and built an arena where the members practice the roping of steers.

Virginia has 91 credit unions and 15 REA cooperatives, some half dozen urban stores or buying clubs, and a number of farmers' cooperatives handling petroleum products and farm and home supplies. These include several Negro store cooperatives, one of which has been operating since 1937 and has three branch stores. The most active recent development has been the erection of cold-storage locker plants—a development which has been fostered by the Southern States Cooperative, at Richmond. Until the war put a stop to civilian flying, the State also had 5 flying clubs which owned one or more airplanes which the members flew for pleasure.

PART 2.—CURRENT LABOR STATISTICS

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Current Statistics of Labor Interest in Selected Periods¹

[Available in reprint form]

Item	Unit or base period	1946			1945	1939: Average for year
		August	July	June	August	
<i>Employment and unemployment</i>						
Civilian labor force (BC): Total	Thousands	60,000	60,400	59,300	54,350	\$ 54,230
Male	do	42,830	43,000	42,030	35,020	\$ 40,950
Female	do	17,170	17,400	17,270	19,330	\$ 13,280
Employed ²	do	57,960	58,130	56,740	53,520	\$ 46,930
Male	do	41,250	41,240	40,030	34,590	\$ 35,600
Female	do	16,710	16,890	16,710	18,930	\$ 11,330
Nonagricultural	do	48,830	48,190	46,760	44,470	\$ 37,430
Agricultural	do	9,130	9,940	9,980	9,050	\$ 9,500
Unemployed	do	2,040	2,270	2,560	830	\$ 7,300
Male	do	1,580	1,760	2,000	430	\$ 5,350
Female	do	460	510	560	400	\$ 1,950
Civilian employment in nonagricultural establishments: Total ³	do	39,881	39,265	39,056	38,172	\$ 30,353
Manufacturing	do	14,586	14,244	14,098	15,019	10,078
Mining	do	829	815	807	784	845
Construction ⁴	do	2,109	1,976	1,874	927	1,753
Transportation and public utilities	do	4,000	3,962	3,917	3,860	2,912
Trade	do	7,803	7,747	7,749	6,979	6,618
Finance, service, and miscellaneous	do	5,160	5,152	5,131	4,666	4,160
Federal, State, and local government, excluding Federal force-account construction	do	5,394	5,369	5,480	5,937	3,988
Military personnel	do	2,812	3,105	3,422	12,245	367
Production-worker employment:						
Manufacturing	do	11,881	11,552	11,412	12,179	\$ 192
Bituminous-coal mining	do	336	332	332	323	371
Class I steam railroads, including salaried employees (ICC)	do	1,368	1,349	1,330	1,449	988
Hired farm workers (BAE)	do	2,786	2,711	2,453	2,642	\$ 3,063
<i>Hours and earnings</i>						
Average weekly hours:	Hours	40.4	39.6	40.0	40.7	37.7
Manufacturing	do	34.1	41.7	40.8	27.1	
Bituminous-coal mining	do	41.2	40.9	41.9	43.0	
Retail trade	do	39.7	38.2	38.2	40.3	32.6
Average weekly earnings:						
Manufacturing	\$44.90	\$43.35	\$43.30	\$41.72	\$23.86	
Bituminous-coal mining	do	\$50.69	\$63.58	\$50.66	\$23.88	
Retail trade	do	\$32.94	\$32.39	\$29.34	\$21.17	
Building construction (private)	\$59.37	\$56.25	\$55.23	\$55.79	\$30.39	
Average hourly earnings:						
Manufacturing	\$1.111	\$1.093	\$1.084	\$1.024	\$0.633	
Bituminous-coal mining	do	\$1.475	\$1.497	\$1.254	\$0.886	
Retail trade	do	\$0.889	\$0.877	\$0.775	\$0.536	
Building construction (private)	\$1.497	\$1.473	\$1.444	\$1.383	\$0.933	
Average straight-time hourly earnings in manufacturing, using—						
Current employment by industry		\$1.064	\$1.053	\$0.969	\$0.622	
Employment by industry as of January 1941		\$1.067	\$1.057	\$0.933	\$0.640	
Quarterly farm wage rate, per day without board (BAE)		\$4.84		* \$4.48	* \$1.50	
<i>Industrial injuries and labor turnover</i>						
Industrial injuries in manufacturing per million man-hours worked.				17.7	* 17.0	15.4
Labor turn-over per 100 employees in manufacturing:						
Total separations		6.8	5.9	5.7	17.9	* 3.0
Quits	do	5.1	4.5	4.0	6.2	* 0.8
Lay-offs	do	1.1	0.8	1.2	10.7	* 2.1
Total accessions		6.8	7.8	6.7	5.9	* 5.1
<i>Labor-management disputes</i>						
Work stoppages beginning in month:						
Lumber	Thousands	500	480	350	447	218
Number of workers involved	Thousands	235	185	150	271	98
All work stoppages during month:						
Number of man-days idle	do	3,425	3,300	3,800	1,712	1,484
Man-days idle as percent of available working time	do	0.49	0.48	0.65	0.24	0.28

See footnotes at end of table.

Current Statistics of Labor Interest in Selected Periods¹—Continued

Item	Unit or base period	1946			1945	1939: Average for year
		August	July	June	August	
<i>Prices</i>						
Consumers' price index (moderate income families in large cities):	1935-39=100	143.7	141.0	133.3	129.3	99.4
All items						
Food	1935-39=100	171.2	165.7	145.6	140.9	95.2
Clothing	1935-39=100	159.7	157.9	157.2	146.4	100.5
Rent	1935-39=100	108.7		108.5		104.3
Fuel, electricity, and ice	1935-39=100	113.7	113.3	110.5	111.4	99.0
Housefurnishings	1935-39=100	158.1	156.9	156.1	146.0	101.3
Miscellaneous	1935-39=100	129.0	127.8	127.9	124.5	100.7
Retail food price index (large cities): All foods.	1935-39=100	171.2	165.7	145.6	140.9	95.2
Cereals and bakery products	1935-39=100	135.4	126.1	122.1	109.1	94.5
Meats	1935-39=100	186.6	173.7	134.0	131.8	96.6
Dairy products	1935-39=100	180.1	179.1	147.8	133.4	95.9
Eggs	1935-35=100	173.6	161.0	147.1	171.4	91.0
Fruits and vegetables	1935-39=100	178.3	188.4	183.5	183.5	94.5
Beverages	1935-39=100	126.6	126.0	125.4	124.7	95.5
Fats and oils	1935-39=100	180.3	137.9	126.4	124.0	87.7
Sugar and sweets	1935-39=100	140.3	138.5	136.2	126.6	100.6
Wholesale price index: All commodities						
All commodities other than farm products	1926=100	129.1	124.7	112.9	105.7	77.1
All commodities other than farm products and foods	1926=100	121.9	117.5	106.7	100.9	79.5
Farm products	1926=100	161.0	157.0	140.1	126.9	65.3
Foods	1926=100	149.0	140.2	112.9	106.4	70.4
<i>National income and expenditures</i>						
National income payments (BFDC)	Millions	\$13,466	\$13,979	\$14,478	\$12,674	\$ \$5,483
Consumer expenditures for goods and services (BFDC)	do			\$30,165	\$25,480	\$ \$15,406
Retail sales (BFDC)	do	\$8,540	\$7,671	\$7,736	\$6,320	\$ \$3,422
<i>Production</i>						
Industrial production index, unadjusted (FR): Total	1935-39=100	178	173	171	188	100
Manufactures	1935-39=100	184	178	176	196	109
Minerals	1935-39=100	146	149	143	143	106
Bituminous coal (BM)	Thousands of short tons	54,830	50,800	50,350	47,658	32,905
Car loadings index, unadjusted (FR)	1935-39=100	145	143	137	132	101
Electric energy (FPC): Total	Millions of kw.-hr.	23,633	22,572	21,441	22,596	(10)
Utilities (production for public use)	do	19,511	18,610	17,623	18,610	\$ 11,014
Industrial establishments	do	4,122	3,962	3,818	3,986	(10)
<i>Construction</i>						
Construction expenditures	Millions	\$1,248	\$1,166	\$1,082	\$534	\$ 672
Value of urban building construction started	do	\$381	\$382	\$368	\$173	(10)
New nonfarm family dwelling units	do	69,800	76,700	68,000	20,400	\$ 51,200

¹ Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics unless otherwise indicated. Abbreviations used: BC (Bureau of the Census); ICC (Interstate Commerce Commission); BAE (Bureau of Agricultural Economics); BFDC (Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce); FR (Federal Reserve); BM (Bureau of Mines); FPC (Federal Power Commission). Most of the current figures are preliminary.

² 10-month average—March to December 1940. Not comparable with later figures. Revisions are in process.

³ Excludes employees on public emergency work, these being included in unemployed civilian labor force. Civilian employment in nonagricultural establishments differs from nonagricultural employment in civilian labor force mainly because of the inclusion in the latter of such groups as self-employed and domestic and casual workers.

⁴ Includes workers employed by construction contractors and Federal force-account workers (nonmaintenance construction workers employed directly by the Federal Government). Other force-account non-maintenance construction employment is included under manufacturing and other groups.

⁵ August.

⁶ July.

⁷ June.

⁸ Meat indexes for May are based on prices for 18 cities and for June on 23 cities instead of the usual 56 cities covered. Retail food indexes other than meats are based on prices in 56 cities.

⁹ Second quarter.

¹⁰ Not available.

Labor-Management Disputes

Significant Recent Controversies

September Maritime Strike

A WIDESPREAD strike of maritime workers which began September 5 virtually paralyzed all shipping on the East, West, and Gulf Coasts for over 2 weeks. It was called initially by the Seafarers' International Union (AFL) and its semi-autonomous division, the Sailors' Union of the Pacific, in protest against a decision of the National Wage Stabilization Board. In this decision, announced August 23, the Board had refused to approve negotiated wage increases of \$22.50 per month for the SUP and \$27.50 for the SIU, ruling that under existing stabilization regulations it could not approve increases exceeding \$17.50 per month—the amount it had approved June 14 for the National Maritime Union (CIO) and several other unions affiliated with the Committee for Maritime Unity. The decision applied to workers on Government owned vessels but not to those on privately owned ships. Private operators were permitted to pay (and in some cases already were paying) the higher wage rates, provided the added wage cost was not used as a basis for increasing rates to shippers.

By September 7 all major ports on all three coasts were strike-bound. With the support of CIO maritime unions and AFL longshoremen who respected the picket lines, and the walk-out in some ports of AFL tugboat operators, the tie-up was virtually complete by September 8.

Following a hearing on September 10, the National Wage Stabilization Board reaffirmed its original decision, and the President referred the controversy to the Director of Economic Stabilization, John R. Steelman. On September 12, Mr. Steelman issued an amendment to the wage stabilization regulations permitting Government agencies to pay the wage and salary rates paid for the same or comparable services by private operators in the same industry, provided the Government operations constituted less than half the industry's operations, and that a substantial part of the industry was paying comparable wages or salaries. This action permitted the Maritime

Commission to reimburse shipowners under contract with the War Shipping Administration for payment of the wage increases originally agreed upon by the operators and AFL unions.

Members of the SUP voted to return to work at once at Pacific ports, but both SIU and SUP members voted to stay out in the East and Gulf ports until assured that the full increases would be paid. Seagoing personnel represented by the National Maritime Union (CIO), the Pacific Coast Marine Firemen, Oilers, Watertenders and Wipers Association (Independent), and the National Union of Marine Cooks and Stewards (CIO), contended that the settlement with the AFL had created inequities by setting "different rates of pay for men doing the same work on the same types of ships." Members of these unions therefore struck September 13. When negotiations with East and Gulf Coast steamship companies in New York made little or no progress, security crews were withdrawn on September 15 from all but refrigerator ships handling perishable cargoes.

The stalemate in the CIO negotiations with the ship operators continued, as members of the SIU prepared to man their vessels. The NMU withdrew picket lines around AFL-manned operations, and AFL longshoremen also began to handle cargo. By September 18, a few AFL-manned ships had sailed from New York. Most American vessels, however, were reported as still immobilized.

The next day an award was issued by arbitrator James L. Fly, who had been considering seven collateral issues, including questions of wage inequities, connected with the June 14 agreement between the NMU and the operators. This award eliminated long-standing wage differentials on vessels of the same type, but operated by different companies, and provided for wage increases, based on the principle of "equal pay for equal work," amounting to \$10 per month for able-bodied seamen, and \$5 per month for firemen and watertenders in the NMU—making the increases equal to those obtained by the AFL unions. East and Gulf Coast shippers immediately accepted the award and signed contracts with the NMU, and the strike was called off September 20 at Eastern ports. The next day brought an end to the strike on the West Coast by the Marine Cooks and Stewards (CIO) and the Marine Firemen, Oilers, Watertenders and Wipers (Independent), following instructions from the U. S. Maritime Commission to West Coast shipowners that provisions of the Fly award and the principle of equal pay for equal work should be put into effect on all Government-owned ships.

Normal shipping operations had not been completely restored when at midnight September 30, the expiration date of the contracts of the Masters, Mates, and Pilots (AFL) and the National Marine Engineers Beneficial Association (CIO), members of these unions ceased

work. These maritime employees had not benefited from the wage adjustments obtained by unlicensed seamen in the earlier controversies. The wage demands of the MEBA called for an increase of 35 percent and those of the MMP, for 30 percent. Both unions were also seeking new or strengthened "union security" clauses, and it was largely around this issue that negotiations deadlocked. A compromise proposal on the security issue was agreed to on October 2 by East Coast and Gulf operators, but the unions insisted upon settlement of all issues before ending the stoppage.

Duquesne Light Co. Dispute

Members of the Independent Association of Employees of the Duquesne Light Co. and Affiliated Companies stopped work on September 24, curtailing electric power for the Pittsburgh area (Allegheny and Beaver Counties) and interfering materially with industry and transportation. The strike followed several months of negotiations on a new contract, and occurred while a temporary injunction, obtained by the city of Pittsburgh on the ground that such a stoppage would endanger public health and safety, was in effect.

The union's proposals for a new contract as submitted to the company in June included a 20-percent wage increase, additional holidays with pay, proposals for a profit-sharing plan which would benefit both workers and consumers, and a master contract to cover the Duquesne Co. and its 12 affiliated subsidiaries—about 30 demands in all.

Negotiations through July and August, with participation by Federal and State mediators and the mayor of Pittsburgh failed to produce a settlement. A strike notice, under provisions of the War Labor Disputes Act, was filed, with the 30-day waiting period to expire August 31. On September 3 union members voted in favor of a strike and 4 days later set September 10 as the stoppage date.

As strikers began to leave their posts on the date set, the Pennsylvania Common Pleas Court in Pittsburgh directed the union to rescind its strike order. The court temporarily enjoined the union from interfering with operations of company and auxiliary equipment and forbade picketing. It also directed the affected companies to enter into bona fide negotiations and to work out a sound and permanent labor policy. The union president immediately postponed the strike.

On September 21 the union's nine-man strike committee ordered a stoppage for September 24 in protest against the injunction and refusal of the company to negotiate after union members had voted to reject arbitration of the dispute. Shortly after workers left their jobs, the court denied the union's request to dismiss the injunction, sentenced

its president to 1 year in jail for contempt of court, and threatened strike, arrest of the committee if the strike was not called off the next day, the st. Although the stoppage was but partially effective on the first day, the grocer subsequently city transportation was curtailed and some mines, paper heavy industries, and business establishments were closed in Pitts deliver burgh and the surrounding area serviced by the company and its champe subsi

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(AFL) and the Motor Carrier Association of New York and ~~our~~ employers failed to reach an agreement. The workers had requested a 30-percent wage increase and reduction in working hours; the employers countered with an offer of \$3 per week which was rejected by the union. Anticipating the crisis, in late August, Mayor O'Dwyer had suggested a compromise settlement of 18½ cents per hour increase, reduction of the workweek from 44 to 40 hours, and enlarged vacation benefits. The proposal was rejected by a majority of the operators and later by the union. Plans were then made for assuring uninterrupted supplies of food, medicines, and other essentials in case of a

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eatened strike, and delivery was guaranteed by the union. However, when xt day the stoppage began, deliveries of goods from warehouses to chain st day groceries were halted, forcing about 700 stores to close. Supplies of mines paper were cut, and newspapers were forced to curtail their issues; n Pitts delivery of finished goods, particularly in the garment industry, was and it's hampered; and industries in the nearby States of New Jersey, Rhode Island, and Massachusetts felt the effects of the stoppage. The Association of American Railroads placed an embargo on some docks and warehouses, and

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man-days) was somewhat greater than in July, than any other preceding month of 1946. New stoppages reported for August totaled 500, the highest on record for any month since September 1945.

The number of workers involved (235,000) in new stoppages, while somewhat greater than in June and July, was much smaller than in some of the earlier months of the year. Including controversies which began in previous months, approximately 400,000 workers were involved in 820 stoppages in effect at some time during August 1946.

its president to 1 year in jail for contempt of court, and threatened arrest of the committee if the strike was not called off the next day. Although the stoppage was but partially effective on the first day, subsequently city transportation was curtailed and some mines, heavy industries, and business establishments were closed in Pittsburgh and the surrounding area serviced by the company and its subsidiaries.

While CIO and AFL unions were not directly involved in the strike, they were concerned with the use of the injunction, claiming that it was contrary to the Pennsylvania Anti-Injunction Act of 1937. Some sympathy strike action developed, employees of the Jones & Laughlin Steel Corp. going out in sympathy on the second day of the stoppage. Several manufacturing plants of the Westinghouse Electric Corp. closed when workmen refused to operate with power generated by the Duquesne Light Co. The Amalgamated Association of Street, Electric Railway, and Motor Coach Employees (AFL) called out their members as a "protective measure," stating that threats had been made against the men operating trolleys with "struck power." This halted trolley service. Shortly thereafter bus service was withdrawn upon order of the drivers' union.

At a court hearing on September 25, the union committee announced that it would recommend termination of the walk-out of members who were meeting to consider company proposals. The same day, the union president was temporarily released following his apology to the court, but union members voted not to consider the company terms until the injunction was dissolved. The next day the injunction was dissolved and the two parties resumed negotiations which, however, failed to result in an agreement by the end of the month.

New York Area Trucking Strike

Shipments of general cargo in the New York City area were halted on September 1, when three locals of the International Brotherhood of Teamsters, Chauffeurs, Warehousemen and Helpers of America (AFL) and the Motor Carrier Association of New York and other employers failed to reach an agreement. The workers had requested a 30-percent wage increase and reduction in working hours; the employers countered with an offer of \$3 per week which was rejected by the union. Anticipating the crisis, in late August, Mayor O'Dwyer had suggested a compromise settlement of 18½ cents per hour increase, reduction of the workweek from 44 to 40 hours, and enlarged vacation benefits. The proposal was rejected by a majority of the operators and later by the union. Plans were then made for assuring uninterrupted supplies of food, medicines, and other essentials in case of

strike, and delivery was guaranteed by the union. However, when the stoppage began, deliveries of goods from warehouses to chain groceries were halted, forcing about 700 stores to close. Supplies of paper were cut, and newspapers were forced to curtail their issues; delivery of finished goods, particularly in the garment industry, was hampered; and industries in the nearby States of New Jersey, Rhode Island, and Massachusetts felt the effects of the stoppage. The Association of American Railroads placed an embargo on some shipments to avoid congestion at loading docks and warehouses, and the Railway Express Co., because of the unusual demands, temporarily suspended intracity delivery service in New York City. A total of 25,000 to 30,000 truck drivers and related workers were idle during the dispute, including some in nearby New Jersey.

On September 16 the impasse was broken when some of the independent employers led by the Bohack Co. proposed an increase of \$7.40 per week, and a reduction in weekly hours from 44 to 40 with no reduction in the base pay of \$55. The plan was accepted by the principal union, Local 807, and on September 17 the trucks began to operate after more than 700 out of the 1,570 firms had signed the agreement. Holding out were two of the principal operator groups, the Motor Carrier Association of New York, and the New York State Motor Truck Association. The 55 firms in these associations on September 20 filed suit for \$10,000,000 damages in Federal court against Local 807, claiming noncompliance with the War Labor Disputes Act.

Late in the month discussions between representatives of these unions and the hold-out operators were arranged by Edward C. Maguire, director of the city's new division of labor relations. Three alternative proposals were offered by the operators, but as these fell short of the terms under which a reported 60 percent of the drivers had returned to work, they were rejected by the local unions involved. On September 30 no settlement had been reached.



Work Stoppages in August 1946

IDLENESS due to labor-management disputes in August (3,425,000 man-days) was somewhat greater than in July, but was less than in any other preceding month of 1946. New stoppages reported for August totaled 500, the highest on record for any month since September 1945.

The number of workers involved (235,000) in new stoppages, while somewhat greater than in June and July, was much smaller than in some of the earlier months of the year. Including controversies which began in previous months, approximately 400,000 workers were involved in 820 stoppages in effect at some time during August 1946.

TABLE 1.—*Work Stoppages in August 1946 with Comparable Figures for Earlier Periods*

Period	Work stoppages beginning in the period		Man-days idle during period (all stoppages)		Percent of estimated working time (all industries)
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
August 1946 ¹	500	235,000	3,425,000	3,425,000	0.6
July 1946 ²	480	185,000	3,300,000	3,300,000	.6
August 1945	447	270,900	1,712,000	1,712,000	.9
January-August:					
1946 ³	3,125	3,425,000	93,225,000	93,225,000	1.8
1945	3,211	1,920,300	10,420,000	10,420,000	.8
1944	3,509	1,303,100	6,005,000	6,005,000	.1
1935-39 average	2,083	817,000	12,145,000	12,145,000	

¹ All known work stoppages, arising out of labor-management disputes, involving 6 or more workers and continuing as long as a full day or shift are included in reports of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Figures on "workers involved" and "man-days idle" cover all workers made idle in establishments directly involved in a stoppage. They do not measure the indirect or secondary effects on other establishments or industries whose employees are made idle as a result of material or service shortages.

² Preliminary estimates.

Activities of the United States Conciliation Service, August 1946

During August 1946, the United States Conciliation Service terminated 1,240 dispute cases of which approximately 25 percent were work stoppages, 40 percent were threatened stoppages, and the remainder were controversies. The relative percentages were approximately the same as in July.

Of the 312 work stoppages terminated in August, 220 or 70.5 percent had reached the stoppage stage before the services of a Commissioner of Conciliation were requested. Excluding the 220 stoppages, the Conciliation Service was successful in closing 90.9 percent of all dispute cases before a work stoppage occurred.

There were 128 arbitration decisions rendered by arbitrators appointed by the Conciliation Service, as compared with 75 such awards the previous month. Fourteen technical studies were completed in August, the same number as in July.

TABLE 2.—*Cases Closed by the U. S. Conciliation Service in August 1946, by Type of Situation and Type of Disposition*

Method of handling	Total		Work stoppages		Threatened work stoppages		Controversies		Other situations	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
All methods	1,455	854,758	312	481,219	503	215,357	425	114,889	215	43,200
Settled by conciliation	1,187	397,514	293	78,390	484	206,419	410	112,705		
Unable to adjust	6	327	2	56	4	271				
Referred to other agencies	47	413,624	17	402,773	15	8,667	15	2,184		
Decisions rendered in arbitration	135	34,775							135	34,775
Technical services completed	14	4,323							14	4,323
Miscellaneous services	66	4,195							66	4,195

¹ This figure includes 7 arbitration cases involving 46 employees, in which settlements other than arbitration decisions were made.

Prices and Cost of Living

Index of Consumers' Prices in Large Cities, August 1946¹

RETAIL prices of goods and services important in the purchases of moderate-income city families rose 1.9 percent between mid-July and mid-August 1946. The consumers' price index was 143.7 percent of the 1935-39 average in mid-August. Higher prices were reported for all major groups of items in the family budget, with the continued rise in food prices the principal cause of this increase. Food prices advanced 3.3 percent; other living essentials increased 0.7 percent on the average. Mid-August retail prices were 7.8 percent higher than in mid-June, before the withdrawal of subsidies and the

¹ The "consumers' price index for moderate-income families in large cities," formerly known as the "cost of living index," measures average changes in retail prices of selected goods, rents and services, weighted by quantities bought by families of wage earners and moderate-income workers in large cities in 1934-36. The items priced for the index constituted about 70 percent of the expenditures of city families whose incomes averaged \$1,524 in 1934-36.

The index only partially shows the wartime effects of changes in quality, availability of consumer goods, etc. The President's Committee on the Cost of Living has estimated that such factors, together with certain others not fully measured by the index, would add a maximum of 3 to 4 points to the index for large cities between January 1941 and September 1944. If small cities were included in the national average, another $\frac{1}{2}$ point would be added. If account is also taken of continued deterioration of quality and disappearance of low-priced merchandise between September 1944 and September 1945, the over-all adjustment for the period January 1941 to September 1945 would total approximately 5 points. Merchandise of prewar quality is appearing again in retail stores and quantities of these goods are becoming large enough to price regularly, so that direct comparisons with prewar prices of such merchandise are made in computing the consumers' price index. If prices of prewar merchandise for most articles have been available for use in the index by the end of 1946, as now seems likely, most of this 5-point adjustment will no longer be applicable at that time.

The indexes in the accompanying tables are based on time-to-time changes in the cost of goods and services purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities. They do not indicate whether it costs more to live in one city than in another. The data relate to the 15th of each month, except those for January 1941, in tables 1 and 2. They were estimated for January 1, 1941, the base date for determining allowable "cost of living" wage increases under the Little Steel formula and under the wage-price policy of February 1946. January 1, 1941, indexes in tables 1 and 2 have been estimated by assuming an even rate of change from December 15, 1940, to the next pricing date. The President's hold-the-line order was issued April 8, 1943. The peak of the rise which led to that order was reached in May, which is, therefore, used for this comparison.

Food prices are collected monthly in 56 cities during the first 4 days of the week which includes the Tuesday nearest the 15th of the month. Aggregate costs of foods in each city, weighted to represent food purchases of families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined for the United States with the use of population weights. In March 1943, the number of cities included in the food index was increased from 51 to 56, and the number of foods from 54 to 61. Prices of clothing, housefurnishings, and miscellaneous goods and services are obtained in 34 large cities in March, June, September, and December. In intervening months, prices are collected in 21 of the 34 cities for a shorter list of goods and services. In computing the all-items indexes for individual cities and the rent index for the average of large cities because of the general stability of average rents at present, the indexes are held constant in cities not surveyed during the current quarter. Prices for fuel, electricity, and ice are collected monthly in 34 large cities.

lapse of OPA controls, and 11.1 percent higher than a year ago on VJ-day. When these prices were obtained the Decontrol Board had not yet taken any action concerning the prices for meats, dairy products, and fats and oils.

Food costs in large cities rose 3.3 percent on the average between mid-July and mid-August, and were 17.6 percent higher than in mid-June. Prices of fats and oils averaged 43 percent above June 18 levels; and meats, most of which were subsidized before July 1, advanced 39 percent during this 2-month period.²

Prices for all foods except fresh fruits and vegetables rose 6.1 percent between mid-July and mid-August, while fresh fruits and vegetables—which are usually lower in midsummer—dropped 8.1 percent. Between July and August prices for fats and oils jumped 31 percent, chiefly because of a 64-percent rise in lard prices. Meats were in good supply in retail stores in August and prices advanced 7.4 percent over July, with pork rising 21 percent and lamb 10 percent. Cereal and bakery products increased 7.4 percent, reflecting higher ceiling prices allowed by OPA; eggs continued to rise seasonally. Seasonally lower prices of 26 percent were reported for onions, of 14 percent for

TABLE I.—*Index of Consumers' Prices for Moderate-Income Families and Percent of Change, August 1946, Compared with Earlier Months*

Group	August 1946	July 1946	August 1945	May 1943	January 1941	August 1939
	This month	Last month	Year ago— VJ-day	Hold-the- line order	Wage base date	Month be- fore war in Europe
Indexes (1935-39 = 100)						
All items	143.7	141.0	129.3	125.1	100.8	98.0
Food	171.2	165.7	140.9	143.0	97.6	93.5
Clothing	159.7	157.9	146.4	127.9	101.2	100.3
Rents	108.7			108.0	105.0	104.3
Fuel, electricity, and ice	113.7	113.3	111.4	107.6	100.8	97.5
Gas and electricity	91.8	92.1	95.2	96.1	97.5	99.0
Other fuels and ice	134.9	133.7	127.2	118.7	104.0	96.8
Housefurnishings	158.1	156.9	146.0	125.1	100.2	100.6
Miscellaneous	129.0	127.8	124.5	115.3	101.8	100.4
Percent of change to August 1946						
All items	+1.9	+11.1	+14.9	+42.6	+45.7	
Food	+3.3	+21.5	+19.7	+75.4	+83.1	
Clothing	+1.1	+9.1	+24.9	+57.8	+59.2	
Rent	+1.2		+6	+3.5	+4.2	
Fuel, electricity, and ice	+4	+2.1	+5.7	+12.8	+16.6	
Gas and electricity	-3	-3.6	-4.5	-5.8	-7.3	
Other fuels and ice	+9	+6.1	+13.6	+29.7	+40.1	
Housefurnishings	+8	+8.3	+26.4	+57.8	+57.2	
Miscellaneous	+9	+3.6	+11.9	+26.7	+28.5	

¹ Percent of change from June 1946.

² Price changes following the new ceilings on meat prices, which became effective on September 10, will be reflected in the September index if meat supplies are large enough to provide an adequate sample of prices. If a shortage of meats develops again, meat prices will be held constant in the index in those cities where it is impossible to obtain an adequate number of price quotations. This is the same procedure that was used in May and June when the usual number of meat prices was not available.

TABLE 2.—*Percent of Increase in Consumers' Price Index From Specified Dates to August 1946, by Cities*

City	July 1946	August 1945	May 1943	January 1941	August 1939
	Last month	Year ago— VJ-day	Hold-the- line order	Wage base date	Month be- fore war in Europe
Average.....	1.9	11.1	14.9	42.6	45.7
Baltimore, Md.....	2.5	10.3	14.1	45.3	48.2
Birmingham, Ala.....	3.7	11.0	18.1	46.3	50.9
Boston, Mass.....	1.7	11.3	14.4	41.2	44.1
Buffalo, N. Y.....	1.8	9.7	10.2	39.3	44.1
Chicago, Ill.....	1.8	12.3	15.3	41.9	45.5
Cincinnati, Ohio.....	2.0	10.4	15.3	43.4	46.8
Cleveland, Ohio.....	2.2	11.1	14.7	43.9	46.8
Denver, Colo.....	1.5	9.5	12.4	39.8	41.8
Detroit, Mich.....	.8	10.7	14.1	43.8	47.4
Houston, Tex.....	2.8	9.7	12.4	37.1	38.8
Kansas City, Mo.....	2.9	9.9	14.4	42.5	42.2
Los Angeles, Calif.....	1.5	9.9	14.5	40.5	43.3
Minneapolis, Minn.....	.9	11.4	14.2	36.6	39.5
New York, N. Y.....	1.1	11.8	17.0	43.9	46.8
Philadelphia, Pa.....	2.6	11.8	15.0	44.7	46.7
Pittsburgh, Pa.....	2.0	11.8	16.6	43.9	48.0
St. Louis, Mo.....	2.0	11.6	14.8	40.9	45.1
San Francisco, Calif.....	2.3	11.1	14.9	44.6	48.2
Savannah, Ga.....	2.5	10.2	15.5	50.3	53.5
Seattle, Wash.....	1.1	8.4	11.3	41.1	43.7
Washington, D. C.....	1.3	10.2	14.9	42.2	44.1

TABLE 3.—*Percent of Change in Consumers' Price Index, July to August 1946, by Cities and Groups of Items*

City	All items	Food	Cloth- ing	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and ice			House furnish- ings	Miscel- laneous
					Total	Gas and elec- tricity	Other fuels and ice		
Average.....	+1.9	+3.3	+1.1	+40.2	+0.4	-0.3	+0.9	+0.8	+0.9
Atlanta, Ga.....	+7.8	+7.8	+1.1	+40.2	+1.1	+1.1	0	+2.6	+1.2
Baltimore, Md.....	+2.5	+4.4	+.9	+1.3	+2	0	+2	+2.6	+1.2
Birmingham, Ala.....	+3.7	+8.5	+5	+1.1	0	0	0	+3	+2
Boston, Mass.....	+1.7	+2.0	+1.9	+1.2	+2.3	+1	+3.1	+1.1	+2.0
Buffalo, N. Y.....	+1.8	+3.1	+1.9	+2	0	0	0	+8	+1.3
Chicago, Ill.....	+1.8	+3.3	.8	+1.1	+1.1	0	+1.8	+5	+1.0
Cincinnati, Ohio.....	+2.0	+4.3	+2	+1.3	+5	0	+9	-1	+2
Cleveland, Ohio.....	+2.2	+4.3	+7	+1.3	0	0	0	+7	+1.0
Denver, Colo.....	+1.5	+2.8	-.5	+1.3	0	0	0	+2.3	+.9
Detroit, Mich.....	+8	+1.0	+5	+1.6	+6	0	+9	+2	+8
Houston, Tex.....	+2.8	+5.2	+1.4	+1.9	-1	0	0	+1.5	+.9
Indianapolis, Ind.....	+6.8	-	-	-	0	0	0	-	-
Jacksonville, Fla.....	+6.4	-	-	-	+1	0	+1	-	-
Kansas City, Mo.....	+2.9	+6.4	+1.0	-	0	0	0	+1.1	+1.1
Los Angeles, Calif.....	+1.5	+2.3	+1.4	+1.4	0	0	0	+4	+.9
Manchester, N. H.....	+4.5	-	-	-	+3.2	+1	+4.3	-	-
Memphis, Tenn.....	+7.4	-	-	-	+1	0	+2	-	-
Milwaukee, Wis.....	+5	-	-	-	-3	0	-4	-	-
Minneapolis, Minn.....	+9	+1.5	+8	+1.4	+4	0	+5	+1.6	+.6
Mobile, Ala.....	+7.1	-	-	-	0	0	-1	-	-
New Orleans, La.....	+4.5	-	-	-	0	0	+2	-	-
New York, N. Y.....	+1.1	+1.2	+2.0	-	-5	-1.5	+5	+6	+1.3
Norfolk, Va.....	+7.4	-	-	-	0	0	0	-	-
Philadelphia, Pa.....	+2.6	+5.2	+3	+1.1	0	0	0	+8	+.6
Pittsburgh, Pa.....	+2.0	+3.8	+9	-	+1	0	+1	+1.0	+1.3
Portland, Maine.....	+3.5	-	-	-	+2.4	+5	+3.0	-	-
Portland, Oreg.....	+3.6	-	-	-	+7	-1	+1.2	-	-
Richmond, Va.....	+6.6	-	-	-	0	0	0	-	-
St. Louis, Mo.....	+2.0	+3.4	+8	+1.1	+4	0	+6	+2.1	+1.1
San Francisco, Calif.....	+2.3	+4.9	+2	+1.3	-4.4	-6.4	+7	+2	+5
Savannah, Ga.....	+2.5	+3.9	+2.8	+2	+3.3	0	+4.7	+9	+6
Scranton, Pa.....	+1.7	-	-	-	0	0	0	-	-
Seattle, Wash.....	+1.1	+1.7	+8	+1.2	+1.1	0	+1.7	+5	+5
Washington, D. C.....	+1.3	+3.1	+5	-	+3	0	+5	+5	+4

¹ Percent of change from March 1946.² Percent of change from June 1946.³ This decrease results from a correction for a gas rate change not previously shown.

apples, and of 10 percent each for potatoes, green beans, and sweet-potatoes.

Clothing prices rose 1.1 percent between July and August, mainly because of higher prices for cotton clothing, shoes, shoe repairs, and women's coats. Costs of housefurnishings and miscellaneous goods and services increased 0.8 and 0.9 percent, respectively. Sharp price advances were reported for cook stoves, sheets, wool and cotton blankets, tobacco products, and gasoline in most cities.

Rate reductions in early August lowered the average cost of electricity to consumers in New York. Fuel-oil prices, uncontrolled after June 30, rose in all cities as supplies were short; crude-oil prices advanced. A slight rise in coal prices resulted from a July 1 freight-rate increase.

The rent index rose 0.2 percent from June 15 to August 15 as the first rental surveys since the temporary lapse of OPA controls were completed for 16 cities. Residential rents in the 16 cities surveyed during this period rose 0.4 percent on the average. In computing the total rent index for all cities, rents were treated as unchanged for the remaining 18 cities.

TABLE 4.—*Indexes of Consumers' Prices for Moderate-Income Families in Large Cities 1935 to August 1946*

Year and month	Indexes (1935-39=100) of cost of—						
	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, elec-tricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscel-laneous
1935.....	98.1	100.4	96.8	94.2	100.7	94.8	98.1
1936.....	99.1	101.3	97.6	96.4	100.2	96.3	98.7
1937.....	102.7	105.3	102.8	100.9	100.2	104.3	101.0
1938.....	100.8	97.8	102.2	104.1	99.9	103.3	101.5
1939.....	99.4	95.2	100.5	104.3	99.0	101.3	100.7
1940.....	100.2	96.6	101.7	104.6	99.7	100.5	101.1
1941.....	105.2	105.5	106.3	106.2	102.2	107.3	104.0
1942.....	116.5	123.9	124.2	108.5	105.4	122.2	110.9
1943.....	123.6	138.0	129.7	108.0	107.7	125.6	115.8
1944.....	125.5	136.1	138.8	108.2	109.8	136.4	121.3
1945.....	128.4	139.1	145.9	108.3	110.3	145.8	124.1
1945:							
Jan. 15.....	127.1	137.3	143.0	(1)	109.7	143.6	123.3
Feb. 15.....	126.9	136.5	143.3	(1)	110.0	144.0	123.4
Mar. 15.....	120.8	135.9	143.7	108.3	110.0	144.5	123.6
Apr. 15.....	127.1	136.6	144.1	(1)	109.8	144.9	123.8
May 15.....	128.1	138.8	144.6	(1)	110.0	145.4	123.9
June 15.....	129.0	141.1	145.4	108.3	110.0	145.8	124.0
July 15.....	129.4	141.7	145.9	(1)	111.2	145.6	124.3
Aug. 15.....	129.3	140.9	146.4	(1)	111.4	146.0	124.5
Sept. 15.....	128.9	139.4	148.2	108.3	110.7	146.8	124.6
Oct. 15.....	128.9	139.3	148.5	(1)	110.5	146.9	124.7
Nov. 15.....	129.3	140.1	148.7	(1)	110.1	147.6	124.6
Dec. 15.....	129.9	141.4	149.4	108.3	110.3	148.3	124.8
1946:							
Jan. 15.....	129.9	141.0	149.7	(1)	110.8	148.8	125.4
Feb. 15.....	129.6	139.6	150.5	(1)	111.0	149.7	125.6
Mar. 15.....	130.2	140.1	153.1	108.4	110.5	150.2	125.9
Apr. 15.....	131.1	141.7	154.5	(1)	110.4	152.0	126.7
May 15.....	131.7	142.6	155.7	(1)	110.3	153.7	127.2
June 15.....	133.3	145.6	157.2	108.5	110.5	156.1	127.9
July 15.....	141.0	165.7	157.9	(1)	113.3	156.9	127.8
Aug. 15.....	143.7	171.2	159.7	108.7	113.7	158.1	129.0

¹ Rents not surveyed in this month.

Retail Prices of Food in August 1946

RETAIL prices of food in August 1946 in relation to those in selected preceding periods are shown in the accompanying tables.

TABLE 1.—*Percent of Change in Retail Prices of Food in 56 Large Cities [Combined, by Commodity Groups, in Specified Periods]*

Commodity group	July 16, 1946, to Aug. 13, 1946	Aug. 14, 1945, to Aug. 13, 1946	May 18, 1943, to Aug. 13, 1946	Jan. 14, 1941, to Aug. 13, 1946	Aug. 15, 1939, to Aug. 13, 1946
All foods	+3.3	+21.5	+19.7	+75.1	+83.1
Cereals and bakery products	+7.4	+24.1	+25.8	+42.7	+45.0
Meats	+7.4	+41.6	+34.9	+84.6	+95.0
Beef and veal	+2.9	+52.2	+37.4	+64.8	+81.0
Pork	+21.4	+62.0	+45.3	+111.8	+107.3
Lamb	+10.4	+38.9	+33.8	+92.0	+91.8
Chickens	-1.7	+11.4	+18.7	+80.2	+85.2
Fish, fresh and canned	+1.0	+9.1	+18.5	+100.2	+138.6
Dairy products	+6	+35.0	+31.6	+71.4	+93.4
Eggs	+7.8	+1.3	+22.2	+78.2	+91.4
Fruits and vegetables	-5.4	-2.8	-6.6	+91.1	+93.0
Fresh	-8.1	-5.3	-9.7	+98.9	+100.2
Canned	+7.5	+8.0	+7.3	+53.9	+53.6
Dried	+4.0	+8.5	+15.8	+83.7	+102.7
Beverages	+5	+1.5	+1.7	+39.3	+33.4
Fats and oils	+30.7	+45.4	+42.8	+124.5	+113.4
Sugar and sweets	+1.3	+10.8	+10.0	+47.2	+46.8

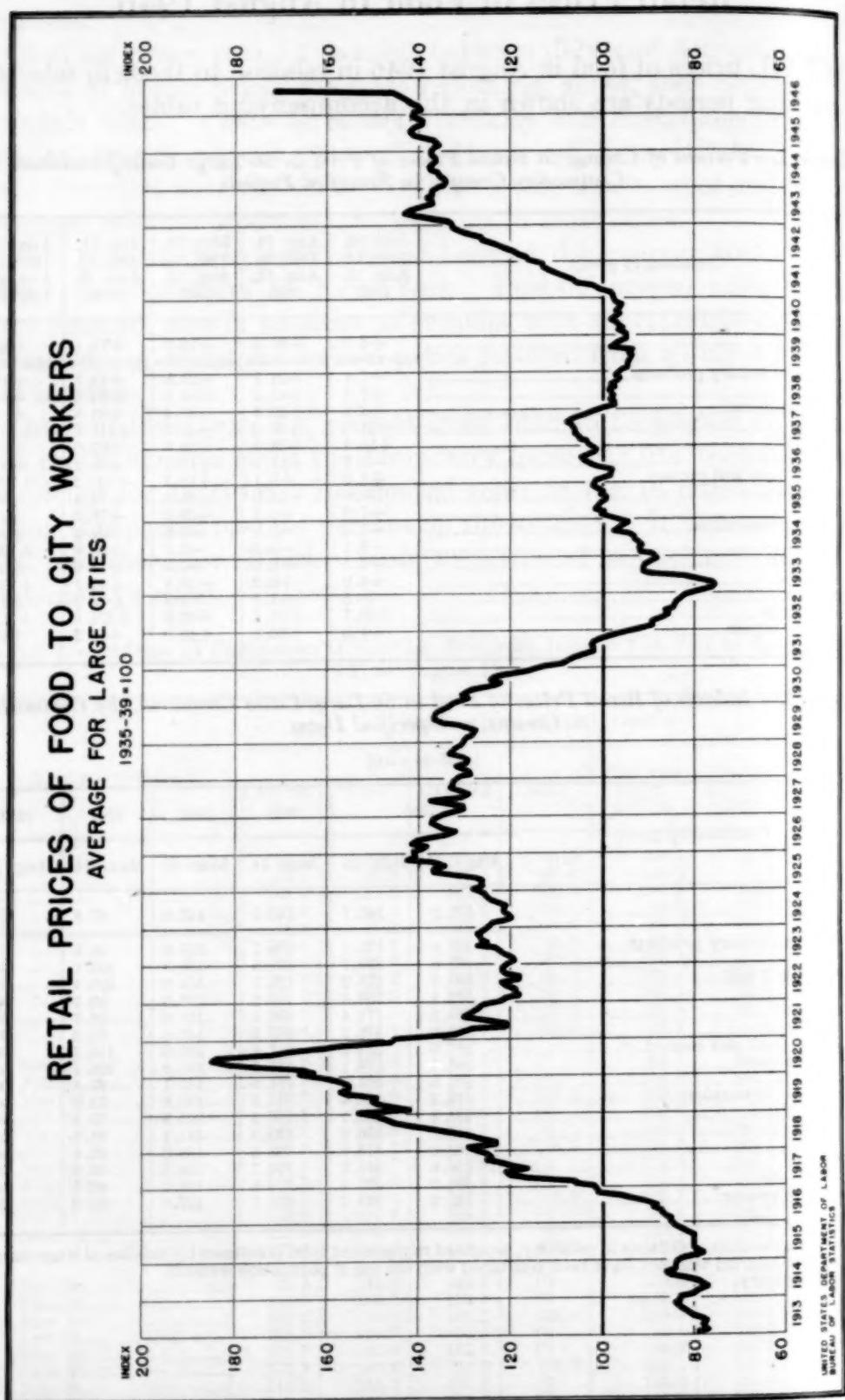
TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Retail Prices of Food in 56 Large Cities Combined,¹ by Commodity Groups, on Specified Dates*

[1935-39=100]

Commodity group	1946		1945	1943	1941	1939
	Aug. 13 ²	July 16	Aug. 14	May 18	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
All foods	171.2	165.7	140.9	143.0	97.8	93.5
Cereals and bakery products	135.4	126.1	109.1	107.6	94.9	93.4
Meats	186.6	173.7	131.8	138.3	101.1	95.7
Beef and veal	180.3	175.2	118.5	131.2	109.4	99.6
Pork	182.4	150.3	112.6	125.5	86.1	88.0
Lamb	189.5	171.6	136.4	141.6	98.7	98.8
Chickens	175.2	178.2	157.3	147.6	97.2	94.6
Fish, fresh and canned	237.6	235.2	217.8	200.5	118.7	99.6
Dairy products	180.1	179.1	133.4	136.9	105.1	93.1
Eggs	173.6	161.0	171.4	142.1	97.4	90.7
Fruits and vegetables	178.3	188.4	183.5	190.8	93.3	92.4
Fresh	185.8	202.1	196.2	205.8	93.4	92.8
Canned	140.7	130.9	130.3	131.1	91.4	91.6
Dried	183.0	175.9	168.6	158.0	99.6	90.3
Beverages	126.6	126.0	124.7	124.5	90.9	94.9
Fats and oils	180.3	137.9	124.0	126.3	80.3	84.5
Sugar and sweets	140.3	138.5	126.6	127.6	95.3	95.6

¹ Aggregate costs of 61 foods in each city, weighted to represent total purchases by families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined with the use of population weights.

²Preliminary.



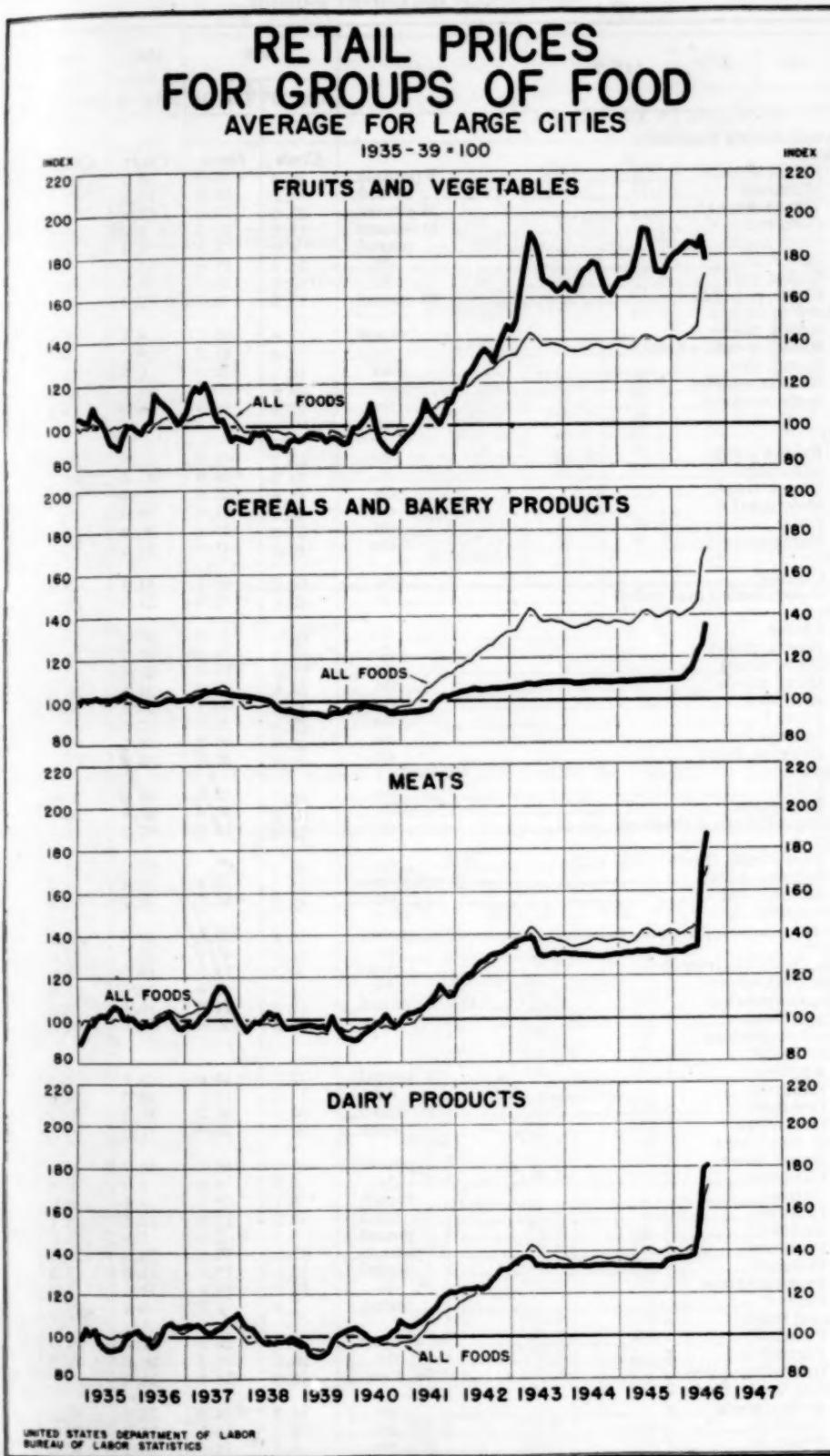


TABLE 3.—Average Retail Prices of 78 Foods in 56 Large Cities Combined, August 1946, Compared With Earlier Months

Article	1946		1945		1941	1939
	Aug. 13 ¹	July 16	Aug. 14	Jan. 14	Aug. 11	
Cereals and bakery products:						
Cereals:						
Flour, wheat ²	5 pounds	38.2	* 35.0	32.2	20.7	17.9
Macaroni	pound	16.7	16.0	15.8	13.8	14.0
Wheat cereal ³	28 ounces	23.6	23.5	23.4	23.5	24.2
Corn flakes ⁴	11 ounces	11.2	10.5	9.2	9.8	9.7
Corn meal	pound	8.0	7.8	6.4	4.2	4.0
Rice ⁵	do	14.4	13.8	13.0	7.9	7.5
Rolled oats	do	10.5	10.5	10.4	7.1	7.1
Flour, pancake ⁶	20 ounces	12.8	12.7	12.4	(*)	(*)
Bakery products:						
Bread, white	pound	11.6	10.7	8.8	7.8	7.8
Bread, whole wheat	do	12.4	11.7	9.7	8.7	8.8
Bread, rye	do	13.1	12.6	9.9	9.0	9.2
Vanilla cookies	do	33.9	* 30.9	28.6	25.1	(*)
Soda crackers	do	20.6	18.8	18.9	15.0	14.8
Meats:						
Beef:						
Round steak	do	63.1	61.1	40.9	38.6	36.4
Rib roast	do	52.1	* 50.0	33.0	31.5	28.8
Chuck roast	do	43.8	* 43.4	28.4	25.2	22.1
Stew meat ⁷	do	43.9	41.8	30.0	(*)	(*)
Liver	do	51.2	47.1	36.9	(*)	(*)
Hamburger	do	40.0	41.0	27.4	(*)	(*)
Veal:						
Cutlets	do	66.6	64.4	44.4	45.2	42.5
Roast, boned and rolled ⁸	do	49.6	* 48.9	34.3	(*)	(*)
Pork:						
Chops	do	61.0	51.2	37.2	29.1	30.9
Bacon, sliced	do	63.1	* 51.2	41.2	30.1	30.4
Ham, sliced	do	77.2	* 64.9	49.4	45.1	46.4
Ham, whole	do	58.8	48.5	34.5	26.2	27.4
Salt pork	do	42.3	30.1	22.0	16.7	15.4
Liver ⁹	do	34.3	29.1	22.1	(*)	(*)
Sausage ¹⁰	do	48.9	46.2	38.7	(*)	(*)
Bologna, big ¹¹	do	46.0	42.6	33.9	(*)	(*)
Lamb:						
Leg	do	56.7	50.5	40.5	27.8	27.6
Rib chops	do	62.4	57.5	46.0	35.0	36.7
Poultry: Roasting chickens	do	52.9	* 53.8	47.6	31.1	30.9
Fish:						
Fish (fresh, frozen)	do	40.1	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)
Salmon, pink	16-ounce can	25.5	25.4	23.4	15.7	12.8
Salmon, red ¹²	do	43.2	* 43.7	39.7	26.4	23.1
Dairy products:						
Butter	pound	76.4	80.5	49.9	38.0	30.7
Cheese	do	57.4	51.2	35.7	27.0	24.7
Milk, fresh (delivered)	quart	19.3	18.9	15.6	13.0	12.6
Milk, fresh (store)	do	18.1	17.9	14.5	11.9	11.0
Milk, evaporated	14½-ounce can	12.6	11.6	10.1	7.1	6.7
Eggs: Eggs, fresh	dozen	60.2	55.8	60.6	34.9	32.0
Fruits and vegetables:						
Fresh fruits:						
Apples	pound	12.1	14.0	13.1	5.2	4.4
Bananas	do	11.3	11.9	10.5	6.6	6.1
Oranges	dozen	55.4	57.7	51.3	27.3	31.5
Grapefruit ¹³	each	10.6	10.0	11.0	(*)	(*)
Fresh vegetables:						
Beans, green	pound	16.3	18.3	18.7	14.0	7.2
Cabbage	do	5.3	4.8	6.0	3.4	3.9
Carrots	bunch	8.7	9.2	9.1	6.0	4.6
Lettuce	head	11.5	11.6	12.5	8.4	8.4
Onions	pound	5.2	7.0	7.9	3.6	3.6
Potatoes	1½ pounds	67.6	76.4	73.8	29.2	34.4
Spinach	pound	13.1	12.0	11.6	7.3	7.8
Sweetpotatoes	do	12.0	13.4	11.4	5.0	5.5
Beets ¹⁴	bunch	7.9	7.7	8.4	(*)	(*)
Canned fruits:						
Peaches	No. 2½ can	29.0	29.5	27.2	16.5	17.1
Pineapple	do	26.6	26.8	26.3	20.9	21.0
Grapefruit juice	No. 2 can	15.0	14.8	14.4	(*)	(*)
Canned vegetables:						
Beans, green	do	14.3	* 14.0	13.2	10.0	10.0
Corn	do	14.9	14.9	14.8	10.7	10.4
Peas	do	14.5	14.0	13.2	13.2	13.6
Tomatoes	do	15.3	12.7	12.2	8.4	8.6
Soup, vegetable ¹⁵	11-ounce can	13.4	13.4	13.2	(*)	(*)

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Average Retail Prices of 78 Foods in 56 Large Cities Combined, August 1946, Compared With Earlier Months—Continued*

Article	1946		1945	1941	1939
	Aug. 13 ¹	July 16	Aug. 14	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
Fruits and vegetables—Continued					
Dried fruits: Prunes	pound	18.1	17.9	17.4	9.6
Dried vegetables:					8.8
Navy beans	do.	13.8	12.7	11.5	6.5
Soup, dehydrated, chicken noodle ²	ounce	4.0	3.9	3.8	(8)
Beverages:					
Coffee	pound	31.0	\$30.9	30.5	20.7
Tea	1/4 pound	24.1	24.1	24.2	17.6
Cocoa ³	1/2 pound	10.4	10.5	10.4	9.1
Fats and oils:					
Lard	pound	38.4	\$23.5	18.8	9.3
Shortening other than lard:					
In cartons	do.	26.7	20.9	20.0	11.3
In other containers	do.	28.9	25.2	24.5	18.3
Salad dressing	pint	31.2	28.7	24.2	20.1
Oleomargarine	pound	30.4	25.2	23.9	15.6
Peanut butter	do.	34.2	34.1	28.6	17.9
Oil, cooking or salad ⁴	pint	33.6	31.4	30.5	(8)
Sugar and sweets:					
Sugar	pound	7.5	7.4	6.7	5.1
Corn syrup	24 ounces	17.4	16.0	15.8	13.6
Molasses ⁵	16 fluid ounces	20.5	20.4	20.4	17.3
Apple butter ⁶	16 ounces	15.6	15.8	14.1	(8)

¹ Preliminary.² Price formerly published for 10 pounds.³ Not included in index.⁴ Price formerly published for 8 ounces.⁵ Not priced.⁶ Composite price not computed.⁷ Price formerly published for 18 ounces avoirdupois.⁸ Revised.TABLE 4.—*Indexes of Average Retail Prices of All Foods, by Cities,¹ on Specified Dates*
[1935-39=100]

City	1946		1945	1941	1939
	Aug. 13 ²	July 16	Aug. 14	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
United States	171.2	165.7	140.9	97.8	93.5
Atlanta, Ga.	174.1	161.5	142.1	94.3	92.5
Baltimore, Md.	178.0	170.5	149.1	97.9	94.7
Birmingham, Ala.	180.8	166.6	147.5	96.0	90.7
Boston, Mass.	165.2	161.9	135.7	95.2	93.5
Bridgeport, Conn.	164.3	158.7	137.4	96.5	93.2
Buffalo, N. Y.	162.8	157.9	138.4	100.2	94.5
Butte, Mont.	163.6	154.4	138.7	98.7	94.1
Cedar Rapids, Iowa ⁴	174.6	171.8	145.3	95.9	
Charleston, S. C.	173.2	161.9	139.7	95.9	95.1
Chicago, Ill.	174.0	168.4	139.2	98.2	92.3
Cincinnati, Ohio	168.6	161.6	140.0	96.5	90.4
Cleveland, Ohio	178.6	171.3	145.6	99.2	93.6
Columbus, Ohio	160.3	153.1	134.0	93.4	88.1
Dallas, Tex.	168.6	162.7	138.9	92.6	91.7
Denver, Colo.	166.3	161.8	139.3	94.8	92.7
Detroit, Mich.	168.5	166.9	138.4	97.0	90.6
Fall River, Mass.	164.7	158.2	134.1	97.5	95.4
Houston, Tex.	168.8	160.4	141.2	102.6	97.8
Indianapolis, Ind.	170.8	159.9	137.7	98.2	90.7
Jackson, Miss. ⁴	188.0	169.1	151.2	105.3	
Jacksonville, Fla.	181.5	170.6	152.0	98.8	95.8
Kansas City, Mo.	164.3	154.4	135.4	92.4	91.5
Knoxville, Tenn. ⁴	203.7	186.4	160.6	97.1	
Little Rock, Ark.	167.8	159.3	140.4	95.6	94.0
Los Angeles, Calif.	175.1	171.2	145.9	101.8	94.6

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 4.—Indexes of Average Retail Prices of All Foods, by Cities,¹ on Specified Dates—Continued

[1935-39=100]

City	1946		1945	1941	1939
	Aug. 13 ²	July 16	Aug. 14	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
Louisville, Ky.	163.1	155.2	135.0	95.5	92.1
Manchester, N. H.	168.7	161.5	136.4	96.6	94.0
Memphis, Tenn.	187.5	174.6	150.9	94.2	89.7
Milwaukee, Wis.	168.3	167.4	139.4	95.9	91.1
Minneapolis, Minn.	163.3	160.9	133.2	99.0	95.0
Mobile, Ala.	175.5	163.8	152.3	97.9	93.1
Newark, N. J.	170.0	164.9	143.4	98.8	95.6
New Haven, Conn.	163.7	160.6	137.2	95.7	93.7
New Orleans, La.	188.8	180.6	156.5	101.9	97.6
New York, N. Y.	171.0	168.9	141.7	99.5	95.8
Norfolk, Va.	176.6	164.5	146.1	95.8	93.6
Omaha, Nebr.	167.8	161.4	131.8	97.9	92.1
Peoria, Ill.	183.6	172.2	145.9	99.0	93.4
Philadelphia, Pa.	169.2	160.8	138.9	95.0	93.0
Pittsburgh, Pa.	174.0	167.6	141.3	98.0	92.5
Portland, Maine	166.5	160.8	135.7	95.3	95.9
Portland, Oreg.	182.1	175.8	150.9	101.7	96.1
Providence, R. I.	173.4	165.3	141.6	96.3	93.7
Richmond, Va.	164.1	154.0	138.3	93.7	92.2
Rochester, N. Y.	165.5	160.6	137.8	99.9	92.3
St. Louis, Mo.	175.5	169.7	144.0	99.2	93.8
St. Paul, Minn.	161.6	150.0	132.1	98.6	94.2
Salt Lake City, Utah	171.8	166.4	143.9	97.5	94.6
San Francisco, Calif.	180.6	172.1	147.1	99.6	93.8
Savannah, Ga.	187.2	180.1	157.5	100.5	96.7
Scranton, Pa.	171.2	168.4	141.3	97.5	92.1
Seattle, Wash.	170.0	167.1	145.8	101.0	94.5
Springfield, Ill.	181.1	174.1	146.1	96.2	94.1
Washington, D. C.	169.9	164.8	141.7	97.7	94.1
Wichita, Kans. ⁴	183.2	174.8	149.8	97.2	-----
Winston-Salem, N. C. ⁴	177.4	164.6	143.4	93.7	-----

¹ Aggregate costs of 61 foods in each city, weighted to represent total purchases by wage earners and low-salaried workers, have been combined for the United States with the use of population weights.

² Preliminary.

³ Revised.

⁴ June 1940=100.

TABLE 5.—Indexes of Retail Food Prices in 56 Large Cities Combined, 1913 to August 1946
[1935-39=100]

Year	All-foods index	Year	All-foods index	Year and month	All-foods index	Year and month	All-foods index
1913	79.9	1928	130.8	1943	138.0	1945	-----
1914	81.8	1929	132.5	1944	136.1	November	140.1
1915	80.9	1930	126.0	1945	139.1	December	141.4
1916	90.8	1931	103.9				
1917	116.9	1932	86.5	1945	145		
1918	134.4	1933	84.1				
1919	149.8	1934	93.7	January	137.3	1945	-----
				February	136.5	January	141.0
1920	168.8	1935	100.4	March	135.9	February	139.6
1921	128.3	1936	101.3	April	136.6	March	140.1
1922	119.9	1937	105.3	May	138.8	April	141.7
1923	124.0	1938	97.8	June	141.1	May	142.6
1924	122.8	1939	95.2	July	141.7	June	145.6
1925	132.9	1940	96.6	August	140.9	July	165.7
1926	137.4	1941	105.5	September	139.4	August	171.2
1927	132.3	1942	123.9	October	139.3		

Wholesale Prices in August 1946

PRICE advances for most groups of commodities during August 1946 raised the general level of primary market prices ¹ 3.5 percent. This advance, following the sharp rise in July, brought the wholesale price index to 129.1 percent of the 1926 average. This was 14.3 percent above the average for June 1946, before the suspension of OPA controls, and 72.1 percent above August 1939.

Price developments during August fell into three major categories—advances for commodities not under control or removed from control by the new price control law, increases resulting from ceiling adjustments required under the new act, and price roll-backs as ceilings were reinstated by OPA late in July.

Prices for farm products and foods, many of which were not under price control, advanced 2.5 percent and 6.3 percent, respectively, while the average for all other commodities rose 1.9 percent. The advance in the group index for commodities other than farm products and foods reflected increases for textile products and fuel and lighting materials, with fractional advances for metals and metal products, building materials, housefurnishings, and miscellaneous commodities. Price decreases, reflecting ceiling roll-backs, occurred for hides and leather products and chemicals and allied products.

The advance of 2.5 percent for farm products was due in large part to higher average prices for livestock. Quotations for steers, hogs, and lambs continued to advance over July levels while prices of calves, cows, and live poultry dropped. Large new crops, combined with the heavy livestock marketings, reduced average quotations for grains. Corn dropped more than 10 percent and wheat 4 percent. Eggs averaged higher on good demand. Prices of many fresh fruits and vegetables were lower in August, with ample supplies. Quotations for raw cotton and leaf tobacco, exempt from price control, increased.

Higher prices with new ceilings were reported for front brick, red oak flooring, some types of paint materials, cast iron plumbing fixtures, wallboard, builders' hardware, lime, cement, and prepared roofing. Price roll-backs to ceiling levels occurred for concrete blocks, cast iron pipe, and important paint materials.

The decrease for chemicals and allied products resulted from price roll-backs on fats and oils, together with competitive price reductions for some commodities in good supply, such as phenol, toluene and nux vomica. Price advances following ceiling increases occurred for

¹ The Bureau of Labor Statistics wholesale price data, for the most part, represent prices in primary markets. In general, the prices are those charged by manufacturers or producers or are those prevailing on commodity exchanges. The monthly index is calculated from a monthly average of one-day-a-week prices. It should not be compared directly with the weekly wholesale prices index, which is designed as an indicator of week-to-week changes. Indexes for the last 2 months are preliminary.

explosives, nonferrous metals, salts, mixed fertilizer, and chemical fertilizer materials.

Higher prices for cotton blankets to reflect increases in raw cotton costs and price advances for some durable goods raised the group index for housefurnishings goods 0.6 percent.

Reduced demand with heavy livestock marketing lowered average prices for cattle feed about 10 percent. Boxboard and paper quotations moved up, with higher ceilings allowed to stimulate the production of needed items. Price advances with ceiling increases also were reported for dry cell batteries and rubber heels. Prices of lubricating oils, asbestos pipe covering, and lower priced cigars, not under price control, were higher in August. Soap quotations were down as prices were rolled back to June levels.

Among the foods, dairy products of all types continued to move up and most meats were sharply higher in August. Flour prices dropped with the reestablishment of ceilings but remained above June levels, since OPA allowed ceiling increases to flour millers to offset withdrawal of subsidies and higher grain costs. Quotations for breakfast cereals and bakery products rose with higher ceilings. Black pepper, exempt from control, moved up sharply toward the end of the month. Edible fats and oils, not under control until the end of August, were generally higher. Green coffee quotations moved up to higher ceilings.

Price roll-backs for hides and skins, leather, and shoes more than offset scattered price increases for selected types of leather and shoes and lowered the group index for hides and leather products 1.6 percent in August.

The rise of 5 percent for textile products was due largely to higher prices for cotton goods and cotton clothing required under the OPA act to offset higher costs for raw cotton. The advance in the Bureau index for hosiery and underwear reflected a revision in this subgroup of the index to take account of earlier increases for rayon hose which had not been completely reflected and the introduction of nylon hose into the index with prices somewhat higher than in July 1941. The indexes for July have been revised where necessary to reflect the resumption of sales of raw silk of those specifications regularly included in the index, with prices substantially above those prevailing in mid-1941 when silk of similar qualities was last available to civilians. Quotations for raw silk continued to advance in August. These post-war sales of silk were made by the U. S. Commercial Company, in small volume relative to prewar transactions.

Petroleum and petroleum products, removed from price control by the new act, rose sharply in August. With the advance in crude petroleum quotations, the governmental subsidy paid for production

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TABLE 1.—Indexes of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities,
August 1946, Compared With Previous Months

Groups and subgroups	Indexes (1926=100)				Percentage change to August 1946 from—		
	August 1946	July 1946	August 1945	August 1939	July 1946	August 1945	August 1939
All commodities	129.1	² 124.7	105.7	75.0	+3.5	+22.1	+72.1
Farm products							
Grains	161.0	157.0	126.9	61.0	+2.5	+26.9	+163.9
Livestock and poultry	169.0	181.4	126.4	51.5	-6.8	+33.7	+228.2
Other farm products	177.6	162.9	130.7	66.0	+9.0	+35.9	+169.1
Foods	147.8	145.7	123.7	60.1	+1.4	+19.5	+145.9
Dairy products	149.0	140.2	106.4	67.2	+6.3	+40.0	+121.7
Cereal products	161.8	156.9	110.6	67.9	+3.1	+46.3	+138.3
Fruits and vegetables	124.7	124.9	95.1	71.9	-2	+31.1	+73.4
Meats	120.4	130.0	124.3	58.5	-7.4	-3.1	+105.8
Other foods	198.1	169.9	107.9	73.7	+16.6	+83.6	+168.8
Hides and leather products	114.9	109.4	96.8	60.3	+5.0	+18.7	+90.5
Shoes	138.9	141.2	118.0	92.7	-1.6	+17.7	+49.8
Hides and skins	140.1	140.4	126.3	100.8	-2	+10.9	+39.0
Leather	155.8	169.3	117.8	77.2	-8.0	+32.3	+101.8
Other leather products	133.3	133.2	101.3	84.0	+1	+31.6	+58.7
Textile products	124.0	² 118.1	99.6	67.8	+5.0	+24.5	+82.9
Clothing	122.8	120.5	107.4	81.5	+1.9	+14.3	+50.7
Cotton goods	160.0	148.6	119.7	65.5	+7.7	+33.7	+144.3
Hosiery and underwear	87.7	76.3	71.5	61.5	+14.9	+22.7	+42.6
Rayon	30.2	30.2	30.2	28.5	0	0	+6.0
Silk	134.8	126.7	(1)	44.3	+6.4		+204.3
Woolen and worsted goods	112.8	² 112.7	112.7	75.5	+1	+1	+49.4
Other textile products	121.7	113.5	100.9	63.7	+7.2	+20.6	+91.1
Fuel and lighting materials							
Anthracite	94.4	90.3	84.8	72.6	+4.5	+11.3	+30.0
Bituminous coal	113.4	114.5	101.8	72.1	-1.0	+11.4	+57.3
Coke	136.7	136.1	124.7	96.0	+4	+9.6	+42.4
Electricity	147.0	147.5	134.0	104.2	-3	+9.7	+41.1
Gas	(1)	(1)	61.5	75.8			
Petroleum and products	(1)	80.7	78.0	86.7			
Metals and metal products	72.8	65.1	64.2	51.7	+11.8	+13.4	+40.8
Agricultural implements	114.0	113.3	104.7	93.2	+.6	+8.9	+22.3
Farm machinery	108.5	107.2	97.8	93.5	+1.2	+10.9	+16.0
Iron and steel	109.7	108.7	98.8	94.7	+.9	+11.0	+15.8
Motor vehicles	113.3	111.3	99.1	95.1	+1.8	+14.3	+19.1
Nonferrous metals	(1)	(1)	112.8	92.5			
Plumbing and heating	101.4	102.7	85.8	74.6	-1.3	+18.2	+35.9
Building materials	106.3	106.0	93.4	79.3	+.3	+13.8	+34.0
Brick and tile	132.7	132.1	117.8	89.6	.5	+12.6	+48.1
Cement	126.0	122.5	111.6	90.5	+2.9	+12.9	+39.2
Lumber	105.8	104.0	99.4	91.3	+1.7	+6.4	+15.9
Paint and paint materials	177.6	177.3	155.3	90.1	+2	+14.4	+97.1
Plumbing and heating	113.9	114.9	107.3	82.1	-.9	+6.2	+38.7
Structural steel	106.3	106.0	93.4	79.3	+.3	+13.8	+34.0
Other building materials	120.1	120.1	107.3	73.0	0	+11.9	+11.9
Chemicals and allied products	120.9	119.9	104.3	89.5	+.8	+15.9	+35.1
Chemicals	98.4	99.3	95.3	74.2	-.9	+3.3	+32.6
Drugs and pharmaceuticals	98.4	98.5	96.1	83.8	-.1	+2.4	+17.4
Fertilizer materials	110.1	112.6	110.2	77.1	-2.2	-.1	+42.8
Mixed fertilizer	94.4	88.2	81.1	65.5	+7.0	+16.4	+44.1
Oils and fats	87.7	86.6	86.6	73.1	+1.3	+1.3	+20.0
Housefurnishings goods	102.5	114.2	102.0	40.6	-10.2	+5	+152.5
Furnishings	112.6	111.9	104.5	85.6	+.6	+7.8	+31.5
Furniture	118.5	117.3	107.5	90.0	+1.0	+10.2	+31.7
Miscellaneous	106.6	106.4	101.5	81.1	+.2	+5.0	+31.4
Automobile tires and tubes	102.0	101.3	94.8	73.3	.7	+7.6	+39.2
Cattle feed	73.0	73.0	73.0	60.5	0	0	+20.7
Paper and pulp	221.1	246.3	159.6	68.4	-10.2	+38.5	+223.2
Rubber, crude	119.5	² 117.1	109.3	80.0	+2.1	+9.4	+49.5
Other miscellaneous	46.2	46.2	46.2	34.9	0	0	+32.4
Raw materials	105.0	101.9	98.9	81.3	+3.0	+6.2	+29.2
Semimanufactured articles	145.7	² 141.7	116.3	66.5	+2.8	+25.3	+119.1
Manufactured products	111.9	110.2	95.5	74.5	+1.5	+17.2	+50.2
All commodities other than farm products	123.9	118.9	101.8	79.1	+4.2	+21.7	+56.6
All commodities other than farm products and foods	121.9	² 117.5	100.9	77.9	+3.7	+20.8	+56.5
	111.6	² 109.5	99.9	80.1	+1.9	+11.7	+39.5

¹ No quotation.² Revised.³ In process of revision.

in marginal areas was reduced. Part of the subsidies, however, were retained to secure adequate production from less profitable wells.

The advance in the group index for metals and metal products resulted from a number of diverse price movements. Farm machinery quotations rose as individual companies moved to higher ceilings allowed earlier. The advance was partially offset by discount adjustments resulting from restoration of dealer margins by OPA. Agricultural hand implements advanced with a 10-percent ceiling increase. Pig iron prices rose with a \$2 per ton ceiling increase retroactive to the end of May; while track bolts and large rivets, decontrolled by OPA, rose sharply. Nonferrous metals averaged lower with price roll-backs for lead, lead pipe, and zinc.

Index Numbers by Commodity Groups, 1926 to August 1946

Index numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups for selected years from 1926 to 1945, and by months from August 1945 to August 1946, are shown in table 2.

The price trend for specified years and months since 1926 is shown in table 3 for the following groups of commodities: Raw materials, semimanufactured articles, manufactured products, commodities other than farm products, and commodities other than farm products

TABLE 2.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Year and month	Farm products	Foods	Hides and leather products	Textile products	Fuel and lighting materials	Metals and metal products	Building materials	Chemicals and allied products	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous	All commodities
1926.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1929.....	104.9	99.9	109.1	90.4	83.0	100.5	95.4	94.0	94.3	82.6	95.3
1932.....	48.2	61.0	72.9	54.9	70.3	80.2	71.4	73.9	75.1	64.4	64.8
1933.....	51.4	60.5	80.9	64.8	66.3	79.8	77.0	72.1	75.8	62.5	65.9
1936.....	80.9	82.1	95.4	71.5	76.2	87.0	86.7	78.7	81.7	70.5	80.8
1937.....	86.4	85.5	104.6	76.3	77.6	95.7	95.2	82.6	89.7	77.8	86.3
1938.....	68.5	73.6	92.8	66.7	76.5	95.7	90.3	77.0	86.8	73.3	78.6
1939.....	65.3	70.4	95.6	69.7	73.1	94.4	90.5	76.0	86.3	74.8	77.1
1940.....	67.7	71.3	100.8	73.8	71.7	95.8	94.8	77.0	88.5	77.3	78.6
1941.....	82.4	82.7	108.3	84.8	76.2	99.4	103.2	84.4	94.3	82.0	87.3
1942.....	105.9	99.6	117.7	96.9	78.5	103.8	110.2	95.5	102.4	89.7	98.8
1943.....	122.6	106.6	117.5	97.4	80.8	103.8	111.4	94.9	102.7	92.2	103.1
1944.....	123.3	104.9	116.7	98.4	83.0	103.8	115.5	95.2	104.3	93.6	104.0
1945.....	128.2	106.2	118.1	100.1	84.0	104.7	117.8	95.2	104.5	94.7	105.8
<i>1945</i>											
August.....	126.9	106.4	118.0	99.6	84.8	104.7	117.8	95.3	104.5	94.8	105.7
September.....	124.3	104.9	118.7	100.1	84.1	104.9	118.0	95.3	104.6	94.8	105.2
October.....	127.3	105.7	118.6	101.0	84.2	105.0	118.3	95.5	104.7	94.8	105.9
November.....	131.1	107.9	118.8	101.1	84.6	105.2	118.7	95.7	104.7	94.8	106.8
December.....	131.5	108.6	118.9	101.4	84.8	105.6	119.5	96.1	104.7	94.8	107.1
<i>1946</i>											
January.....	129.9	107.3	119.4	101.6	84.9	105.7	120.0	96.0	106.2	95.3	107.1
February.....	130.8	107.8	119.6	102.2	85.1	106.6	120.9	95.9	106.5	95.6	107.7
March.....	133.4	109.4	119.8	104.7	85.0	108.4	124.9	96.0	106.9	95.6	108.9
April.....	135.4	110.8	119.8	107.9	86.1	108.8	126.5	96.1	107.5	95.7	110.2
May.....	137.5	111.5	120.4	108.8	86.1	109.4	127.8	96.5	108.3	97.0	111.0
June.....	140.1	112.9	122.4	109.2	87.8	112.2	129.9	96.4	110.4	98.5	112.9
July.....	157.0	140.2	141.2	118.1	90.3	113.3	132.1	99.3	111.9	101.3	124.7
August.....	161.0	149.0	138.9	124.0	94.4	114.0	132.7	98.4	112.6	102.0	128.1

¹ Revised.

and foods. The list of commodities included under the classifications "Raw materials," "Semimanufactured articles," and "Manufactured products" was shown on pages 10 and 11 of Wholesale Prices, July-December and Year 1943, Bulletin No. 785.

TABLE 3.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Special Groups of Commodities*
 [1926 = 100]

Year	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods	Year and month	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods
1936	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	August	116.3	95.5	101.8	100.9	99.9
1929	97.5	93.9	94.5	93.3	91.6	September	114.8	96.5	101.7	100.9	99.8
1932	55.1	59.3	70.3	68.3	70.2	October	116.6	96.8	101.9	101.0	100.1
1933	56.5	65.4	70.5	69.0	71.2	November	118.9	96.9	102.2	101.3	100.2
1936	79.9	75.9	82.0	80.7	79.6	December	119.2	97.6	102.5	101.6	100.5
1937	84.8	85.3	87.2	86.2	85.3	January	118.3	97.6	102.9	101.9	100.8
1938	72.0	75.4	82.2	80.6	81.7	February	118.9	98.8	103.4	102.5	101.3
1939	70.2	77.0	80.4	79.5	81.3	March	120.5	100.4	104.5	103.4	102.2
1940	71.9	79.1	81.6	80.8	83.0	April	122.2	101.1	105.5	104.5	103.3
1941	83.5	86.9	89.1	88.3	89.0	May	123.6	101.9	106.1	105.1	103.1
1942	100.6	92.6	98.6	97.0	95.5	June	126.3	105.7	107.3	106.7	105.5
1943	112.1	92.9	100.1	98.7	96.9	July	141.7	110.2	118.9	117.5	109.
1944	113.2	94.1	100.8	99.6	98.5	August	145.7	111.9	123.9	121.9	111.
1945	116.8	95.9	101.8	100.8	99.7						

1 Revised.

Weekly Fluctuations

Weekly changes in wholesale prices by groups of commodities during July and August 1946 are shown by the index numbers in table 4. These indexes are not averaged to obtain an index for the month but are computed only to indicate the fluctuations from week to week.

TABLE 4.—Weekly Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Commodity Groups, July and August 1946
 [1926=100]

Commodity group	Aug. 31	Aug. 24	Aug. 17	Aug. 10	Aug. 3	July 27	July 20	July 13	July 6
All commodities.....	128.2	128.4	128.3	127.1	125.0	124.1	124.2	120.7	117.2
Farm products.....	157.1	160.9	163.3	162.3	156.5	157.3	159.2	153.9	152.9
Foods.....	150.9	148.1	148.9	144.0	142.3	140.7	142.0	134.0	121.1
Hides and leather products.....	140.1	140.4	138.4	138.3	143.0	144.0	139.3	129.1	124.0
Textile products.....	115.2	115.0	114.9	114.6	110.8	109.5	109.5	108.8	108.8
Fuel and lighting materials.....	96.7	96.7	96.5	96.6	92.5	90.2	90.2	90.1	89.5
Metals and metal products.....	113.6	113.7	113.7	113.5	113.1	113.3	113.2	113.0	112.6
Building materials.....	132.8	132.9	132.7	132.4	132.0	132.6	132.5	131.8	130.7
Chemicals and allied products.....	98.1	98.3	98.3	98.2	98.1	100.3	100.0	98.4	98.2
Housefurnishing goods.....	114.0	114.0	114.0	113.4	113.0	112.5	112.5	110.7	110.7
Miscellaneous.....	101.5	101.5	101.0	101.7	101.6	101.7	98.8	98.3	98.0
Raw materials.....	142.6	144.9	146.3	145.7	140.6	140.2	141.4	137.2	135.2
Semimanufactured articles.....	111.3	111.3	110.5	110.4	109.0	109.0	108.5	107.5	106.1
Manufactured products.....	124.5	123.6	122.9	121.3	120.6	119.3	118.9	115.3	110.9
All commodities other than farm products.....	121.9	121.2	120.6	119.3	118.1	116.8	116.6	113.3	109.4
All commodities other than farm products and foods.....	111.0	111.0	110.8	110.8	109.2	108.6	107.8	106.9	106.3

Distribution of Personal Holdings of Liquid Assets, 1945

IN ITS 1945 study of personal liquid assets—largely Government savings bonds and bank deposits—the United States Bureau of Agricultural Economics¹ ranked the holdings both by the size of the liquid assets and by the income of the holders. The liquid assets and incomes are those of spending units, each of which comprised all persons of the same family living in the same dwelling who pooled their income to meet their major expenses. Distribution of the personal holdings is shown below by both methods of ranking.

Ranked by holdings:

	Percent of liquid assets
Highest 10 percent of spending units	60
Next 20 percent of spending units	27
Next 30 percent of spending units	12
Remaining 40 percent of spending units	1
Total	100

Ranked by income:

\$5,000 and over—8 percent of spending units	36
\$3,000 to \$4,999—22 percent of spending units	26
\$2,000 to \$2,999—23 percent of spending units	17
\$1,000 to \$1,999—27 percent of spending units	14
None to \$999—20 percent of spending units	7
Total	100

Differences in the two distributions reflect the fact that appreciable numbers of spending units in the upper income brackets had low liquid assets while other lower income units had relatively large assets. This results from the fact that assets represent the product of saving over a period of years, and depend on income prior to 1945 as well as in the latter year. For example, a retired person may have received a small income in 1945 and a large income before his retirement. Although he might have saved little in 1945, his previous accumulation of liquid assets could have been extensive. Conversely, a spending unit that had a high 1945 income may have had a considerably smaller income in previous years, and therefore less opportunity to accumulate holdings.

Unfortunately, in the summarization of part I of the Bureau of Agricultural Economics study of income and saving, which appeared in the August 1946 issue of the *Monthly Labor Review* (p. 256), the data on liquid assets ranked on the basis of size of holdings were confused with those based on size of income, which were later published in part II. Therefore, both sets of figures are given above.

¹ U. S. Department of Agriculture: *National Survey of Liquid Asset Holdings, Spending, and Saving, Part I—Major Findings and Part II—Relation of Saving and Holdings to Income*. Washington, 1946.

Building Operations

Building Construction in Urban Areas, August 1946

A YEAR after VJ-day, urban permit valuations in the United States were two and a fourth times as great as they were at the war's end. Valuations of urban building construction scheduled to be started in August 1946 totaled 381 million dollars, compared with 169 million in August 1945. All classes of construction shared in the gain over the year. Residential building construction valuations multiplied more than three and a half times; nonresidential building and additions, alterations, and repairs each increased about two-fifths.

Because of advances during the month in residential building and additions, alterations, and repair work, the August 1946 total was about the same as in July, even though the value of permits issued for nonresidential building dropped 12 percent. Prior to the limitation order of March 26, nonresidential building equaled home construction in dollar volume; however, it accounted for only a little

TABLE 1.—Permit Valuation¹ of Urban Building Construction, by Class of Construction and Source of Funds, August 1946

Class of construction	Valuation (in millions)								
	Total		Non-Federal		Federal				
	August 1946	Percent of change ² from—		August 1946	Percent of change ² from—		August 1946	Percent of change ² from—	
		July 1946	August 1945		July 1946	August 1945		July 1946	August 1945
All construction.....	\$381	-0.3	+120.0	\$344	+0.1	+111.0	\$37	-4.2	+265.5
New residential ³	226	+4.6	+299.1	189	+5.4	+244.4	37	+15	+2086.2
New nonresidential.....	92	-12.3	+34.2	92	-12.3	+49.7	0	0	-100.0
Additions, alterations, and repairs.....	63	+3.1	+31.6	63	+6.3	+35.0	(0)	-93.0	-89.7

¹ Includes value of Federal construction contracts awarded.

² Percentage change computed before rounding.

³ Includes \$22,241,000 which is the estimated cost of 3,485 dwelling units in New York City Housing Authority projects. These projects, although financed solely by city funds, are included with Federal projects in order to segregate public from private housing.

* New York City Housing Authority projects containing 1,310 dwelling units, estimated to cost \$7,830,000, is included in July figures on Federal residential construction.

⁴ Includes value of dormitories and other nonhousekeeping residential buildings in addition to housekeeping units.

⁵ Value less than \$500,000.

more than a fifth of all urban permit valuations in August, against three-fifths for new housing.

There was a slight increase during the month in the number of private homes for which building permits were issued in urban areas—37,386 units in August compared with 36,830 in July. In the previous year there were 12,956 privately financed dwellings scheduled during August. The number of publicly financed units to be started amounted to 7,643 in August 1946, 12,358 in July 1946, and 2,957 in August 1945, bringing the totals for the respective months to 45,029, 49,188, and 15,913.

TABLE 2.—Number and Permit Valuation¹ of New Dwelling Units in all Urban Areas, by Source of Funds and by Type of Dwelling, August 1946

Source of funds and type of dwelling	Number of dwelling units			Valuation (in thousands)		
	August 1946	Percent of change from—		August 1946	Percent of change from—	
		July 1946	August 1945		July 1946	August 1945
All dwellings.....	45,029	-8.5	+244.8	\$221,460	+4.6	+304.1
Privately financed.....	37,386	+1.5	+189.5	187,819	+5.9	+246.1
1-family.....	32,836	+5.7	+193.0	168,051	+7.0	+248.7
2-family ²	1,807	-5.0	+188.7	7,950	+1.4	+271.8
Multifamily ³	2,743	-28.9	+153.3	11,818	-5.4	+201.1
Federally financed.....	7,643	-38.2	+430.8	33,641	-2.0	+6153.0

¹ Includes value of Federal construction contracts awarded.

² Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.

³ Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Comparison of First 8 Months of 1945 and 1946

Permit valuations of urban building construction totaled around 3½ billion dollars for the first 8 months of 1946, against a billion dollars for the corresponding months of 1945. Home construction scheduled to be started by the end of August 1946 amounted to 1,695 million dollars, in contrast to 320 million in the same period of 1945. The gain over the year in other types of construction was not so sharp—new nonresidential building climbed from 398 million dollars in 1945 to 1,119 million in 1946, and additions, alterations, and repairs from 289 million to 554 million dollars. The value of building permits issued in urban areas for non-Federal work tripled between 1945 and 1946, rising from 777 million to 3,147 million dollars; Federal construction contract awards, however, were almost the same, 230 million and 221 million dollars, respectively.

TABLE 3.—*Permit Valuation¹ of Urban Building Construction, by Class of Construction and by Source of Funds, First 8 Months of 1945 and 1946*

Class of construction	Valuation (in millions)							
	Total		Non-Federal		Federal			
	First 8 months of—		Percent of change	First 8 months of—		Percent of change	First 8 months of—	
	1946	1945		1946	1945		1946	1945
All construction.....	\$3,368	\$1,007	+234.5	\$3,147	\$777	+305.0	\$221	\$230
New residential ²	1,695	320	+429.7	1,513	290	+421.7	182	30
New nonresidential.....	1,119	398	+181.2	1,098	222	+394.6	21	176
Additions, alterations, and repairs.....	554	289	+91.7	536	265	+102.3	18	24

¹ Includes value of Federal construction contracts awarded.² Includes \$36,748,850 which is the estimated cost of 6,741 dwelling units contained in New York City Housing Authority projects. These projects, although financed by city funds, are included with Federal projects in order to segregate public from private housing.³ Includes value of dormitories and other nonhousekeeping residential buildings in addition to housekeeping units.TABLE 4.—*Number and Permit Valuation¹ of New Dwelling Units in all Urban Areas, First 8 Months of 1945 and 1946*

Source of funds and type of dwelling	Number of dwelling units			Valuation (in thousands)		
	First 8 months of—		Percent of change	First 8 months of—		Percent of change
	1946	1945		1946	1945	
All dwellings.....	360,332	87,012	+314.1	\$1,653,453	\$314,318	+426.0
Privately financed.....	303,942	76,924	+295.1	1,482,273	286,989	+416.5
1-family.....	257,746	63,431	+306.3	1,302,176	245,302	+430.8
2-family ²	17,475	5,236	+233.7	72,309	16,571	+336.4
Multifamily ³	28,721	8,257	+247.8	107,788	25,116	+329.2
Federally financed.....	56,390	10,088	+459.0	171,180	27,329	+526.4

¹ Includes value of Federal construction contracts awarded.² Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.³ Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Construction From Federal Funds, July 1946¹

The value of contracts awarded and force-account work started during June and July 1946 and July 1945 on all construction projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds and reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics is shown in table 5. This table includes all types of construction both inside and outside the corporate limits of cities in continental United States.

¹ See footnote 1, table 5.

TABLE 5.—Value of Contracts Awarded and Force Account Work Started on Federally Financed Construction in Continental United States, by Type of Project, July 1946

Type of project	Value (in thousands)		
	July 1946 ¹	June 1946 ²	July 1945
	\$107,938	\$306,655	\$101,068
All types			
Airports ³	272	865	7,295
Buildings:			
Residential	43,724	44,368	9,353
Nonresidential	2,364	28,543	42,110
Electrification ⁴	3,420	57,977	14,876
Highways, streets, and roads	50,573	88,413	4,959
Reclamation	1,642	44,073	3,978
River, harbor, and flood control	5,254	13,520	9,418
Water and sewer	0	1,722	1,362
Miscellaneous	689	27,174	7,717

¹ Preliminary. Because of delay in receipt of contract notifications, early figures for the current month will no longer be shown. The necessary upward revisions became so great during the past few months that the earlier figures lost their significance.

² Revised.

³ Exclusive of hangars and other buildings which are included under building construction.

⁴ Represents almost exclusively loans granted by Rural Electrification Administration for electrification projects.

Coverage and Method

Figures on building construction in this report cover the entire urban area of the United States which by Census definition includes all incorporated places with a 1940 population of 2,500 or more and, by special rule, a small number of unincorporated civil divisions. Valuation figures, the basis for statements concerning value, are derived from estimates of construction cost made by prospective builders when applying for permits to build and the value of contracts awarded by the Federal Government. No land costs are included. Unless otherwise indicated, only building construction within the corporate limits of cities in urban areas is included in the tabulations.

Reports of building permits which were received for cities containing between 80 and 85 percent of the urban population of the country provide the basis for estimating the total number of buildings and dwelling units and the valuation of private urban building construction. Similar data for federally financed urban building construction are compiled directly from notifications of construction contracts awarded, as furnished by Federal agencies.

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Trends of Employment and Labor Turn-Over

Labor Force, August 1946

WHO IS COUNTED IN THE LABOR FORCE

Labor force.—Persons 14 years of age and over who are employed or unemployed during the census week.

Employed.—Those at work either full- or part-time and those who have jobs but are not at work such as (1) persons laid off with definite instructions to return to work within 30 days, (2) on vacation or ill, (3) on strike or unable to work because of bad weather or similar causes.

Unemployed.—Those not working, but seeking a job. Persons working part-time are *not* included with the unemployed even though they may be seeking additional work.

Declines of 230,000 in unemployment and 170,000 in employment combined to reduce the civilian labor force by 400,000 between July and August 1946, according to the Bureau of the Census Monthly Report on the Labor Force. The civilian labor force in August numbered 60,000,000, including 57,960,000 employed and 2,040,000 unemployed.

The drop in unemployment between July and August continued the downward trend that has prevailed since last March. In the past 5 months, total unemployment has declined 670,000 from the postwar peak of 2,710,000. About three-fifths of this decline was accounted for by a reduction of veterans' unemployment from 1,210,000 to 840,000. After 1 year of peace, unemployment of men (1,580,000) exceeds the VJ-day level by 1,150,000; female unemployment (460,000) is only 60,000 above the level of a year ago. More than half of all unemployed men are ex-servicemen.

The decline in employment during the month represents the net effect of divergent movements in agricultural and nonagricultural employment. A gain of 640,000 in persons working at nonfarm jobs was more than offset by a seasonal drop of 810,000 in those working on farms.

Nonagricultural employment continued its postwar expansion to reach 48,830,000 in August. Approximately 480,000 men, mostly veterans, and 160,000 women found jobs in nonagricultural activities between July and August. The gain in nonagricultural employment of women during the past 2 months has reversed the movement prevailing since VJ-day. It is too soon, however, to tell whether this means that significant numbers of women will be reentering the labor force in the months to come—especially since last month's increase was seasonal. While it is true that rising living costs and high demand for labor may be causing many women to enter or reenter the labor market, high marriage and birth rates continue to exert a strong downward pull on labor-market participation of women. The next few months should show more clearly the net result of these opposing forces.

Agricultural employment, following its usual downswing from the seasonal peak, numbered 9,130,000—80,000 above the level at the war's end.

Total Labor Force in the United States, Classified by Employment Status, Hours Worked, and Sex, July and August 1946, and August 1945

[Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census]

Item	Estimated number (in thousands) of persons 14 years of age and over ¹								
	Total, both sexes			Male			Female		
	July 1946	August 1946	August 1945	July 1946	August 1946	August 1945	July 1946	August 1946	August 1945
Total labor force ²	63,040	62,380	66,510	45,590	45,170	46,910	17,450	17,210	19,600
Civilian labor force	60,400	60,000	54,350	43,000	42,830	35,020	17,400	17,170	19,330
Unemployment	2,270	2,040	830	1,760	1,580	430	510	460	400
Employment	58,130	57,960	53,520	41,240	41,250	34,590	16,890	16,710	18,930
Nonagricultural	48,190	48,830	44,470	33,460	33,940	27,700	14,730	14,890	16,770
Worked 35 hours or more	39,780	41,000	36,910	28,990	29,860	24,300	10,790	11,140	12,610
Worked 15-34 hours	3,750	3,800	3,290	1,910	1,940	1,520	1,840	1,860	1,770
Worked 1-14 hours ³	1,000	950	1,090	380	400	370	620	550	720
With a job but not at work ⁴	3,660	3,080	3,180	2,180	2,740	1,510	1,480	1,340	1,670
Agricultural	9,940	9,130	9,050	7,780	7,310	6,890	2,160	1,820	2,160
Worked 35 hours or more	7,830	6,970	6,770	6,760	6,210	5,880	1,070	760	890
Worked 15-34 hours	1,790	1,820	1,790	790	870	690	1,000	950	1,100
Worked 1-14 hours ³	160	140	240	100	(*)	130	(*)	(*)	110
With a job but not at work ⁴	160	200	250	130	150	190	(*)	(*)	(*)

¹ Estimates are subject to sampling variation which may be large in cases where the quantities shown are relatively small. Therefore, the smaller estimates should be used with caution; those under 100,000 are not presented in the table but are replaced with an asterisk (*). All data exclude persons in institutions.

² Total labor force consists of the civilian labor force and the armed forces. Estimates of the armed forces during the census week are projected from data on net strength as of the first of the month.

³ Excludes persons engaged only in incidental unpaid family work (less than 15 hours); these persons are classified as not in the labor force.

⁴ Includes persons who had a job or business, but who did not work during the census week because of illness, bad weather, vacation, labor dispute, or because of temporary lay-off with definite instructions to return to work within 30 days of lay-off. Does not include unpaid family workers.

Summary of Employment Reports for August 1946

IN AUGUST 1946 employment in nonagricultural establishments was 39,881,000—more than 1½ million above the level on VJ-day. In the single month between July and August it rose by 616,000. Unemployment, according to the Bureau of the Census, declined by 250,000 over the month, to a point only slightly above 2 million.

The August-to-August shift in the composition of nonagricultural employment reflects the return to a peacetime economy. While manufacturing and government each declined by nearly a half million workers, construction gained over a million, trade about four-fifths of a million, and the remaining categories combined more than a half million. Within the manufacturing division, there has been a shift from durable to nondurable goods since August 1945. The decrease of about 1 million employees in durable goods employment occurred chiefly in the shipbuilding and aircraft industries, while the increase of about a half million in the nondurable goods group is distributed among all major groups except chemicals.

While the July-August 1946 rise of 616,000 in nonagricultural employment reflects gains in each of the major industry divisions, manufacturing industries accounted for about three-fifths of the over-all gain. The construction industry was next in importance with an increase of 133,000, raising construction employment above the 2 million mark for the first time since November 1942.

Industrial and Business Employment

The number of production workers in manufacturing increased by 329,000 between July and August. The gain, which was almost equally divided between the durable and nondurable goods groups, reflected an upward trend in 18 of the 20 major groups. While most of these increases were considerable, the gains of 50,000 and over in the food and apparel industries were the most striking.

TABLE 1.—*Estimated Number of Employees in Nonagricultural Establishments, by Industry Division*

Industry division	Estimated number of employees (in thousands)			
	August 1946	July 1946	June 1946	August 1945
Total estimated employment ¹	39,881	39,265	39,056	38,172
Manufacturing ²				
Mining	14,586	14,244	14,098	15,019
Contract construction and Federal force-account construction	829	815	807	784
Transportation and public utilities	2,109	1,976	1,874	927
Trade	4,000	3,962	3,917	3,860
Finance, service, and miscellaneous	7,803	7,747	7,749	6,979
Federal, State, and local government, excluding Federal force-account construction	5,160	5,152	5,131	4,666
	5,394	5,369	5,480	5,937

¹ Estimates include all full- and part-time wage and salary workers in nonagricultural establishments who worked or received pay during the pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month. Proprietors, self-employed persons, domestic servants, and personnel of the armed forces are excluded.

² Estimates for manufacturing have been adjusted to levels indicated by final 1944 data made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency. These estimates, which are comparable with the production-worker estimates in table 2, supersede those shown in mimeographed releases dated prior to July 18, 1946, and in issues of the Monthly Labor Review dated prior to August 1946. Data from January 1943 forward were affected by this revision. A complete series from 1939 to date is available upon request.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Number of Production Workers and Indexes of Production-Worker Employment in Manufacturing Industries, by Major Industry Group ¹*

Industry group	Estimated number of production workers (in thousands)		Production-worker indexes (1939=100)	
	August 1946	August 1945	August 1946	August 1945
All manufacturing	11,881	12,179	145.0	148.7
Durable goods	5,997	6,779	166.1	187.7
Nondurable goods	5,584	5,400	128.4	117.9
Iron and steel and their products	1,423	1,490	144.5	150.3
Electrical machinery	520	640	200.7	246.8
Machinery, except electrical	1,051	1,076	190.0	203.7
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	453	1,468	285.4	925.2
Automobiles	731	556	181.8	138.3
Nonferrous metals and their products	392	378	171.0	165.1
Lumber and timber basic products	625	524	148.7	124.7
Furniture and finished lumber products	388	330	118.1	100.5
Stone, clay, and glass products	404	317	137.8	108.1
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	1,197	1,049	104.7	91.7
Apparel and other finished textile products	1,049	897	132.9	113.6
Leather and leather products	354	313	102.9	90.2
Food	1,166	1,102	136.5	129.0
Tobacco manufactures	86	79	91.7	84.3
Paper and allied products	366	311	137.8	117.0
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	385	322	117.3	98.3
Chemicals and allied products	475	600	164.9	208.3
Products of petroleum and coal	152	135	143.4	128.0
Rubber products	227	191	187.5	158.0
Miscellaneous industries	427	401	174.4	163.9

¹ The estimates and indexes presented in this table have been adjusted to levels indicated by the final 1944 data made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency.

Public Employment

Employment of Federal War Agencies within continental United States was down 30,000 on August 1 as compared with the preceding month. This was the smallest decline since VJ-day and was partially offset by an increase of 13,000 in peacetime agencies. The Veterans Administration and the Post Office Department continued their upward employment trend and the Agriculture Department showed a further seasonal gain. The Veterans Administration, with 177,000 employees within continental United States on August 1, now is the fourth largest Federal agency, being surpassed in size by the War Department (615,000 employees), Post Office Department (460,000), and the Navy Department (398,000).

Outside continental United States, the employment of war agencies was down 47,000.

TABLE 3.—*Employment and Pay Rolls for Regular Federal Services and for Government Corporations in Selected Months*

Year and month	Total	Executive ¹		Legislative	Judicial	Government corporations ²			
		Continental United States							
		All areas	Total						
Employment ³									
August 1939	982,146	948,951	908,734	124,726	5,432	2,192			
August 1940	1,092,982	1,058,075	995,868	138,857	5,985	2,535			
August 1941	1,496,669	1,457,169	1,358,989	185,797	6,142	2,637			
August 1942	2,495,609	2,453,455	2,248,549	274,700	6,526	2,653			
August 1943	3,330,416	3,286,039	2,964,858	276,999	6,091	2,651			
August 1944	3,388,274	3,344,794	2,941,149	270,501	6,212	2,653			
August 1945	3,821,451	3,777,605	2,920,355	255,573	6,410	2,866			
June 1946	2,808,686	2,766,165	2,327,712	236,017	6,561	3,081			
July 1946 ⁴	2,725,779	2,682,586	2,266,850	235,112	6,697	3,063			
August 1946 ⁵	2,661,921	2,618,805	2,250,166	234,758	6,736	3,036			
Pay rolls (in thousands) ⁶									
August 1943	\$656,049	\$648,305	\$597,861	\$55,903	\$1,520	\$777			
August 1944	693,369	685,550	629,632	55,504	1,527	777			
August 1945 ⁵	698,444	690,240	620,134	57,695	1,779	857			
June 1946 ⁵	654,045	645,188	602,418	73,196	2,044	1,261			
July 1946 ⁵	559,137	550,412	510,113	58,041	2,098	945			
August 1946 ⁵	546,159	537,401	498,777	57,392	2,106	1,009			

¹ Includes employees on force-account construction who are also included under construction projects (table 5). Beginning July 1945, data include clerks at third-class post offices who were previously working on a contract basis. Data exclude substitute rural mail carriers.

² Data are for employees of the Panama Railroad Company, the Federal Reserve banks, and banks of the Farm Credit Administration. Data for other Government corporations are included under the executive service.

³ Employment is as of the first of the calendar month.

⁴ Revised.

⁵ Subject to revision.

⁶ Data are for all pay periods ending within the calendar month. Beginning July 1945, this represents for most per annum employees, pay for 4 weeks for months other than June 1946; June 1946 figures include 3 pay periods covering 6 weeks for most per annum employees.

The over-all change in Federal employment in August was downward by 64,000, of which 17,000 was within continental United States. These changes resulted in a total of 2,700,000 Federal employees—2,250,000 of them within the 48 States and the District of Columbia.

Source of data.—Data for the Federal executive service are reported through the Civil Service Commission, whereas data for the legislative and judicial services and Government corporations are reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Employment on Federal force-account construction is included in both the executive branch (tables 3 and 4) and in construction employment (table 5).

Military personnel and pay figures are reported monthly to the Bureau of Labor Statistics but are published here only quarterly.

TABLE 4.—Employment and Pay Rolls for the Executive Branch of the Federal Government in Selected Months¹

Year and month	All agencies	War agencies ²			Other agencies ³		
		Total	Continental United States	Outside continental United States ⁴	Total	Continental United States	Outside continental United States ⁴
Employment ⁵							
August 1939.....	948,951	212,260	181,704	30,556	736,691	727,030	9,661
August 1940.....	1,058,075	295,161	244,792	50,369	762,914	751,076	11,838
August 1941.....	1,457,169	640,364	555,567	84,797	816,805	803,422	13,383
August 1942.....	2,453,455	1,587,202	1,396,637	190,565	866,253	851,912	14,341
August 1943.....	3,286,039	2,465,767	2,160,652	305,115	820,272	804,206	16,066
August 1944.....	3,344,794	2,500,326	2,112,436	387,890	844,568	828,713	15,755
August 1945.....	3,777,605	2,852,519	2,014,272	838,247	925,086	906,083	19,003
June 1946.....	2,766,165	1,650,995	1,238,769	412,226	1,115,170	1,088,943	26,227
July 1946 ⁶	2,682,586	1,547,803	1,159,084	388,800	1,134,693	1,107,766	26,927
August 1946 ⁷	2,618,805	1,470,771	1,129,379	341,392	1,148,034	1,120,787	27,247
Pay rolls (in thousands) ⁸							
August 1943.....	\$648,305	\$485,782	\$438,843	\$46,939	\$162,523	\$159,018	\$3,505
August 1944.....	685,550	515,484	462,962	52,522	170,066	166,670	3,396
August 1945 ⁹	690,240	495,794	429,847	65,947	194,446	190,287	4,159
June 1946 ¹⁰	645,188	331,014	293,533	37,481	314,174	308,885	5,289
July 1946 ¹⁰	550,412	300,307	266,386	33,921	250,105	243,728	6,377
August 1946 ¹⁰	537,401	286,117	253,967	32,150	251,284	244,810	6,474

¹ Include employees on force-account construction who are also included under construction projects (table 5).

² Covers War and Navy Departments, Maritime Commission, National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, The Panama Canal, and the emergency war agencies.

³ Beginning July 1945, data include clerks at third-class post offices who previously were working on a contract basis. Data exclude substitute rural mail carriers.

⁴ Includes Alaska and the Panama Canal Zone.

⁵ Employment is as of the first of the calendar month.

⁶ Revised.

⁷ Subject to revision.

⁸ Data are for all pay periods ending within the calendar month. Beginning July 1945, this represents, for most per annum employees, pay for 4 weeks for months other than June 1946; June 1946 figures include 3 pay periods covering 6 weeks for most per annum employees.

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Mimeographed tables giving civilian employment and military personnel and pay, monthly, 1939 to date, and civilian pay rolls, monthly, 1943 to date, are available upon request.

Construction

EMPLOYMENT

A million and a quarter construction employees were added to the work force in the 12 months following the war's end, bringing August 1946 employment to 2,321,000. The most rapid expansion occurred in site employment on home building, which was almost 4 times

TABLE 5.—*Estimated Employment and Pay Rolls on Construction in Continental United States, August 1946*

Type of project	Employment (in thousands)			Pay rolls (in thousands)		
	August 1946 ¹	July 1946 ²	August 1945 ²	August 1946 ¹	July 1946 ²	August 1945 ²
Total construction ³	2,321.4	2,182.2	1,064.9	(4)	(4)	(4)
At the construction site.....						
Federal projects ⁴	2,039.0	1,912.9	948.3	(4)	(4)	(4)
Airports.....	191.7	160.2	211.6	\$39,248	\$31,381	\$41,789
Buildings.....	3.4	3.8	10.6	681	755	1,995
Residential.....	92.5	71.6	153.1	18,567	12,906	30,456
Nonresidential.....	71.2	50.5	9.3	14,873	9,407	2,129
Electrification.....	5.6	21.1	143.8	3,694	3,499	28,327
Reclamation.....	9.2	8.7	.9	846	789	148
River, harbor, and flood control.....	23.6	20.3	15.1	2,159	1,867	1,471
Streets and highways.....	51.1	46.2	11.5	4,947	4,308	2,945
Water and sewer systems.....	1.3	1.2	3.2	10,986	9,919	2,255
Miscellaneous.....	5.0	3.6	10.7	264	252	553
Non-Federal projects ⁵	1,847.3	1,752.7	736.7	(4)	(4)	(4)
Buildings.....	1,299.5	1,258.0	413.2	320,977	308,210	100,408
Residential.....	621.2	593.0	166.5	(4)	(4)	(4)
Nonresidential.....	678.3	665.0	246.7	(4)	(4)	(4)
Farm dwellings and service buildings.....	197.0	170.7	142.0	(4)	(4)	(4)
Public utilities.....	155.5	148.8	124.3	(4)	(4)	(4)
Streets and highways.....	97.3	86.5	34.7	(4)	(4)	(4)
State.....	32.0	27.5	17.2	(4)	(4)	(4)
County and municipal.....	65.3	59.0	17.5	(4)	(4)	(4)
Miscellaneous.....	98.0	88.7	22.5	(4)	(4)	(4)
Other ⁶	282.4	269.3	116.6	(4)	(4)	(4)
Maintenance of State roads ¹⁰	118.0	113.0	92.8	(4)	(4)	(4)

¹ Preliminary.

² Revised.

³ Data are for all construction workers (contract and force account) actually engaged on new construction, additions, alterations, and on repair work of the type usually covered by building permits. (Force-account employees are workers hired directly by the owner and utilized as a separate work force to perform construction work of the type usually chargeable to capital account.) The construction figure included in the Bureau's nonagricultural employment series covers only employees of construction contractors and on Federal force account and excludes force-account workers of State and local governments, public utilities, and private firms.

⁴ Data not available.

⁵ Includes the following force-account employees, hired directly by the Federal Government, and their, pay rolls: August 1945, 17,927, \$3,344,967; July 1946, 19,244, \$3,571,294; August 1946, 20,199, \$3,884,140.

These employees are also included under the Federal executive service (tables 3 and 4); all other workers were employed by contractors and subcontractors.

⁶ Includes employment on construction of plants to produce atomic bombs, which, for security reasons, was not previously included in these estimates but was shown in the classification "other", as follows: August 1945, 25,000; July 1946, 2,500; August 1946, 2,500.

⁷ Excludes pay-roll data for construction of plants to produce atomic bombs.

⁸ Employees and pay rolls for Defense Plant Corporation projects are included, but those for projects financed from RFC loans are excluded. The latter are considered non-Federal projects.

⁹ Includes central office force of construction contractors, shop employees of special trades contractors, such as bench sheet-metal workers, etc.

¹⁰ Data for other types of maintenance not available.

greater in August 1946 than in August 1945, having jumped from 176,000 to 692,000. While there were about as many workers on nonresidential building as on home construction in August 1946, the rate of increase over the year was relatively less; site employment on nonresidential building did not even double.

The gain of 139,000 employees during August was a continuation of the steady upward movement that started in January 1945. All classes of construction, except Federal airport projects, shared in the advance over July. Two-fifths of the 116,000 net increase in site employment was on residential construction, compared with one-tenth on nonresidential building.

Source of data.—For construction projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds, the Bureau of Labor Statistics receives monthly reports on employment and pay rolls at the construction site, directly from the contractors or from the Federal agency sponsoring the project. Force-account employees hired directly by the Federal Government are also included in tables 3 and 4 under Federal executive service.

Estimates of employment on non-Federal construction projects (except State roads) are obtained by converting the value of work started (compiled from reports on building permits issued, priorities granted, and from certain special reports) into monthly expenditures and employment by means of factors which have been developed from special studies and adjusted to current conditions. For State roads projects, data represent estimates of the Public Roads Administration.

EARNINGS AND HOURS

Average weekly earnings in July 1946 increased in all types of private construction except two—painting and decorating, and plastering and lathing. In both instances the decrease was occasioned by a shorter workweek. In building construction, hourly and weekly earnings rose most on excavation and foundation work. In non-building construction, the most pronounced rise was recorded in the heavy construction category; average hourly earnings increased nearly 6 cents, and the average workweek was about an hour longer than in June.

Although the average workweek for special building trades as a whole was shorter this July than last, an offsetting increase in hourly earnings brought average earnings for the week up \$1.65 over the year.

Reports on number of employees, weekly pay rolls, and weekly hours are received monthly from approximately 11,000 different contractors. Data published are summaries of all reports received during the months shown and do not necessarily represent reports from identical firms.

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TABLE 6.—*Average Hours and Earnings on Private Construction Projects for Selected Types of Work, July 1946*¹

[Subject to revision]

Type of work	Average hours per week			Average weekly earnings ²			Average hourly earnings		
	July 1946	June 1946	July 1945	July 1946	June 1946	July 1945	July 1946	June 1946	July 1945
	38.6	38.6	(*)	\$56.16	\$54.92	(*)	\$1.454	\$1.423	(*)
All types of work	38.6	38.6	(*)	\$56.16	\$54.92	(*)	\$1.454	\$1.423	(*)
Building construction	38.2	38.2	40.1	56.25	55.23	\$55.57	1.473	1.444	\$1.387
General contractors	37.7	37.9	39.0	53.01	52.39	51.50	1.408	1.384	1.321
Special building trades ⁴	38.8	38.7	40.8	60.09	58.64	58.44	1.547	1.515	1.432
Plumbing and heating	39.4	39.2	41.7	60.92	59.07	57.61	1.548	1.508	1.383
Painting and decorating	37.6	38.1	40.8	58.81	58.86	60.16	1.565	1.545	1.474
Electrical work	40.9	41.1	44.1	67.94	67.51	68.01	1.661	1.643	1.543
Masonry	38.7	37.7	39.4	57.38	54.72	57.01	1.484	1.453	1.449
Plastering and lathing	37.2	37.8	35.0	61.75	61.89	53.69	1.659	1.639	1.535
Carpentry	39.1	39.2	40.7	57.07	55.93	56.60	1.458	1.425	1.390
Roofing and sheet metal	38.1	37.4	39.1	53.11	50.53	53.98	1.393	1.350	1.380
Excavation and foundation	38.8	38.6	39.7	55.28	52.46	52.03	1.423	1.361	1.312
Nonbuilding construction	41.0	40.5	(*)	55.68	53.25	(*)	1.357	1.313	(*)
Highway and streets	41.0	41.0	(*)	53.93	53.37	(*)	1.315	1.303	(*)
Heavy construction	40.7	39.6	(*)	56.81	53.05	(*)	1.396	1.338	(*)
Other	41.9	42.0	(*)	55.12	53.52	(*)	1.315	1.275	(*)

¹ Includes all firms reporting during the month shown.² Hourly earnings when multiplied by weekly hours of work may not exactly equal weekly earnings because of rounding.³ Not available prior to February 1946.⁴ Includes types not shown separately.

Detailed Reports for Industrial and Business Employment, July 1946

MONTHLY reports on employment and pay rolls are presented below for more than 150 manufacturing industries and for 27 nonmanufacturing industries, including water transportation and class I steam railroads. Data for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries are based on reports of the number of employees and amount of pay rolls for the period ending nearest the 15th of the month.

TABLE 1.—*Estimated Number of Production Workers in Manufacturing Industries*¹

Industry group and industry	Estimated number of production workers (in thousands)			
	July 1946	June 1946	May 1946	July 1945
All manufacturing	11,534	11,403	11,216	12,459
Durable goods	5,814	5,704	5,583	7,054
Nondurable goods	5,720	5,699	5,633	5,405
Durable goods				
Iron and steel and their products	1,382	1,342	1,320	1,555
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	469.5	453.1	445.4	461.6
Gray-iron and semisteel castings	80.7	78.2	77.1	70.0
Malleable-iron castings	23.7	23.7	22.6	22.3
Steel castings	50.2	50.8	50.8	60.6
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	18.3	16.2	17.1	15.1
Tin cans and other tinware	43.4	41.9	39.8	42.4
Wire drawn from purchased rods	22.6	22.5	21.2	29.3

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 1.—Estimated Number of Production Workers in Manufacturing Industries¹—Continued

Industry group and industry	Estimated number of production workers (in thousands)			
	July 1946	June 1946	May 1946	July 1945
<i>Durable goods—Continued</i>				
Iron and steel and their products—Continued				
Wirework	36.5	34.3	34.9	30.1
Cutlery and edge tools	25.3	25.8	25.2	21.7
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	24.0	25.0	24.6	25.3
Hardware	44.6	44.9	44.4	42.2
Plumbers' supplies	25.8	25.6	24.4	21.8
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment not elsewhere classified	54.0	51.9	50.1	57.0
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	46.7	45.1	44.2	47.2
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing ²	75.4	73.0	72.1	80.4
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork ²	53.2	50.9	49.8	55.1
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding and trim	9.8	8.6	8.1	8.7
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	17.6	17.4	17.4	22.3
Forgings, iron and steel	25.3	25.9	26.1	30.5
Wrought pipe, welded and heavy riveted	10.9	10.7	11.9	21.6
Screw-machine products and wood screws	20.8	27.2	26.9	37.5
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	5.6	5.5	5.4	8.2
Firearms	13.2	12.9	13.3	19.2
Electrical machinery	504	501	485	659
Electrical equipment	278.7	276.9	267.7	385.3
Radios and phonographs	76.7	76.8	73.8	105.4
Communication equipment	86.0	85.7	84.6	95.2
Machinery, except electrical	1,027	1,011	988	1,105
Machinery and machine-shop products	351.5	347.6	345.1	410.1
Engines and turbines	43.6	40.8	36.9	59.7
Tractors	52.4	49.3	47.0	53.3
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	40.8	40.6	41.0	40.8
Machine tools	59.2	59.3	59.0	68.8
Machine-tool accessories	48.7	48.4	46.8	58.6
Textile machinery	31.7	32.1	31.9	24.9
Pumps and pumping equipment	54.6	54.7	52.9	64.3
Typewriters	18.1	18.3	17.8	12.8
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	33.5	33.0	32.1	26.8
Washing machines, wringers and driers, domestic	10.3	10.7	10.0	11.1
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	9.8	9.5	9.2	10.0
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment	58.2	56.7	54.0	45.3
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	461	462	473	1,577
Locomotives	26.2	26.5	27.1	30.9
Cars, electric and steam-railroad	45.8	42.8	44.5	57.9
Aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines	129.0	125.5	123.5	472.8
Aircraft engines	26.4	26.0	26.1	166.2
Shipbuilding and boat building	175.1	183.2	193.2	691.0
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	10.5	10.3	10.0	9.2
Automobiles	699	668	651	601
Nonferrous metals and their products	372	365	347	384
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals	31.0	29.7	28.1	38.2
Alloying and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals, except aluminum	60.0	57.4	52.4	63.1
Clocks and watches	26.0	26.7	26.0	22.6
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	16.6	17.1	17.0	12.9
Silverware and plated ware	13.6	13.8	13.6	10.5
Lighting equipment	29.2	28.1	25.5	23.1
Aluminum manufactures ²	48.3	47.6	46.3	61.2
Sheet-metal work, not elsewhere classified	24.9	24.8	24.6	29.9
Lumber and timber basic products	603	594	576	522
Sawmills and logging camps	229.0	226.6	221.7	215.1
Planing and plywood mills	70.7	70.2	68.6	67.1
Furniture and finished lumber products	376	374	365	334
Mattresses and bedsprings	20.7	20.2	18.7	16.9
Furniture	160.9	160.2	156.6	143.9
Wooden boxes, other than cigar	24.7	24.6	24.6	25.7
Caskets and other morticians' goods	12.9	13.2	12.9	11.8
Wood preserving	12.0	11.6	11.8	10.0
Wood, turned and shaped	22.0	22.8	22.6	20.9

See footnotes at end of table.

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Pottery
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Wall
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Marble
Abrams
Asbestos

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TABLE 1.—*Estimated Number of Production Workers in Manufacturing Industries*¹—Continued

Industry group and industry	Estimated number of production workers (in thousands)			
	July 1946	June 1946	May 1946	July 1945
<i>Durable goods—Continued</i>				
Stone, clay, and glass products	390	387	378	317
Glass and glassware	100.1	101.3	101.7	86.1
Glass products made from purchased glass ²	11.4	11.9	11.5	10.7
Cement	28.2	27.4	25.9	17.5
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	62.4	58.8	57.7	41.7
Pottery and related products	45.6	45.4	43.5	37.5
Gypsum	5.5	5.1	5.1	4.0
Wallboard, plaster (except gypsum), and mineral wool	8.8	10.5	9.9	9.3
Lime	8.8	8.7	8.7	7.5
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	16.9	16.6	16.0	13.1
Abrasives	18.8	18.6	18.3	20.5
Asbestos products ²	19.2	19.3	17.9	19.1
<i>Nondurable goods</i>				
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	1,183	1,199	1,185	1,051
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares	445.0	447.7	443.1	408.9
Cotton smallwares	13.7	14.1	14.2	13.0
Silk and rayon goods	90.9	91.8	90.7	84.5
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	155.0	160.1	159.3	135.1
Hosiery	113.3	114.3	112.7	94.8
Knitted cloth	11.1	11.2	11.0	9.9
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	30.0	31.3	31.3	26.1
Knitted underwear	34.9	35.3	34.5	33.2
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	63.0	63.7	63.1	56.5
Carpets and rugs, wool	23.7	24.0	23.5	19.0
Hats, fur-felt	10.7	11.0	11.0	8.6
Jute goods, except felts	3.8	3.9	3.7	3.2
Cordage and twine	14.4	15.3	15.2	14.2
Apparel and other finished textile products	999	1,031	1,013	869
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified	191.6	195.4	192.0	188.0
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	53.8	53.9	52.8	48.0
Underwear and neckwear, men's	11.4	11.8	11.8	11.6
Work shirts	13.3	13.7	13.3	14.2
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified	195.5	212.6	212.5	175.4
Corsets and allied garments	15.6	16.2	15.9	13.3
Millinery	17.1	16.5	17.1	16.3
Handkerchiefs	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.5
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	13.5	13.4	12.6	10.2
Housefurnishing, other than curtains, etc.	10.6	10.5	10.5	10.8
Textile bags	14.6	13.7	12.1	14.6
Leather and leather products	355	358	356	313
Leather	41.6	43.0	43.3	38.4
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	17.8	18.1	18.2	16.1
Boots and shoes	193.3	194.2	192.8	169.3
Leather gloves and mittens	11.3	11.5	11.5	11.3
Trunks and suitcases	14.3	14.0	13.9	12.8
Food	1,102	1,017	1,009	1,089
Slaughtering and meat packing	123.4	128.3	136.1	127.4
Butter	26.4	26.2	25.3	25.4
Condensed and evaporated milk	15.7	15.7	14.7	16.2
Ice cream	20.9	19.8	18.5	17.7
Flour	28.3	26.9	27.2	30.1
Feeds, prepared	21.7	20.8	20.8	22.1
Cereal preparations	9.5	9.9	10.0	9.3
Baking	234.0	234.2	238.9	250.1
Sugar refining, cane	14.2	14.2	13.6	13.2
Sugar, beet	4.5	4.7	4.8	4.4
Confectionery	46.1	47.2	48.9	49.0
Beverages, nonalcoholic	25.7	24.9	24.0	26.5
Malt liquors	52.0	50.9	50.0	52.9
Canning and preserving	182.9	110.7	94.7	166.5
Tobacco manufactures	85	86	85	78
Cigarettes	33.6	33.6	33.3	33.9
Cigars	37.6	39.2	38.9	30.5
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff	7.6	7.3	7.1	8.4

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 1.—*Estimated Number of Production Workers in Manufacturing Industries¹*—Continued

Industry group and industry	Estimated number of production workers (in thousands)			
	July 1946	June 1946	May 1946	July 1945
<i>Nondurable goods—Continued</i>				
Paper and allied products	361	364	359	309
Paper and pulp	166.2	167.6	165.0	142.1
Paper goods, other	45.5	46.4	46.3	41.9
Envelopes	10.2	10.5	10.3	9.2
Paper bags	14.1	14.3	14.1	12.3
Paper boxes	85.6	86.6	85.2	75.3
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	383	379	375	317
Newspapers and periodicals	130.1	129.9	129.3	107.4
Printing, book and job	159.5	156.4	153.3	131.1
Lithographing	28.8	28.7	28.4	24.2
Bookbinding	31.2	31.4	31.1	27.1
Chemicals and allied products	468	476	481	643
Paints, varnishes, and colors	35.6	35.3	35.1	28.9
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	51.4	51.4	51.4	50.0
Perfumes and cosmetics	12.5	12.1	12.2	12.4
Soap	14.0	14.1	14.0	13.0
Rayon and allied products	57.0	58.4	58.4	53.7
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified	114.8	117.5	116.5	113.0
Explosives and safety fuses	12.3	12.2	12.7	87.6
Compressed and liquefied gases	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.9
Ammunition, small-arms	7.6	7.6	7.6	57.4
Fireworks	2.6	3.3	3.3	17.5
Cottonseed oil	8.4	9.0	9.9	11.6
Fertilizers	19.2	20.1	24.6	19.6
Products of petroleum and coal	151	149	145	136
Petroleum refining	100.1	99.1	97.9	93.0
Coke and byproducts	25.6	24.7	22.7	21.9
Paving materials	2.1	2.1	2.0	1.8
Roofing materials	12.0	11.8	11.6	9.4
Rubber products	218	225	221	194
Rubber tires and inner tubes	99.1	106.0	104.7	87.7
Rubber boots and shoes	17.5	18.1	17.8	16.8
Rubber goods, other	69.3	68.5	67.0	66.2
Miscellaneous industries	415	415	404	406
Instruments (professional and scientific) and fire-control equipment	22.1	21.7	21.8	52.3
Photographic apparatus	25.2	24.5	24.0	26.8
Optical instruments and ophthalmic goods	21.1	21.3	21.2	20.8
Pianos, organs, and parts	9.0	9.0	8.7	7.7
Games, toys, and dolls	20.8	20.9	20.6	14.4
Buttons	9.8	10.1	10.1	9.0
Fire extinguishers	2.0	2.0	2.0	4.2

¹ Estimates for the major industry groups have been adjusted to levels indicated by the final 1944 data made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency. Estimates for individual industries have been adjusted to levels indicated by the 1939 Census of Manufactures but not to Federal Security Agency data. For this reason, together with the fact that this Bureau has not prepared estimates for certain industries, the sum of the individual industry estimates will not agree with the totals shown for the major industry groups.

² Revisions have been made as follows in data for earlier months:

Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing.—January through April 1946 to 69.3, 58.8, 66.1, and 71.1.

Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork.—March and April 1946 to 45.6 and 48.3.

Aluminum manufactures.—February through April 1946 to 26.1, 41.9, and 44.2.

Glass products made from purchased glass.—April 1946 to 11.0.

Asbestos products.—April 1946 to 17.2.

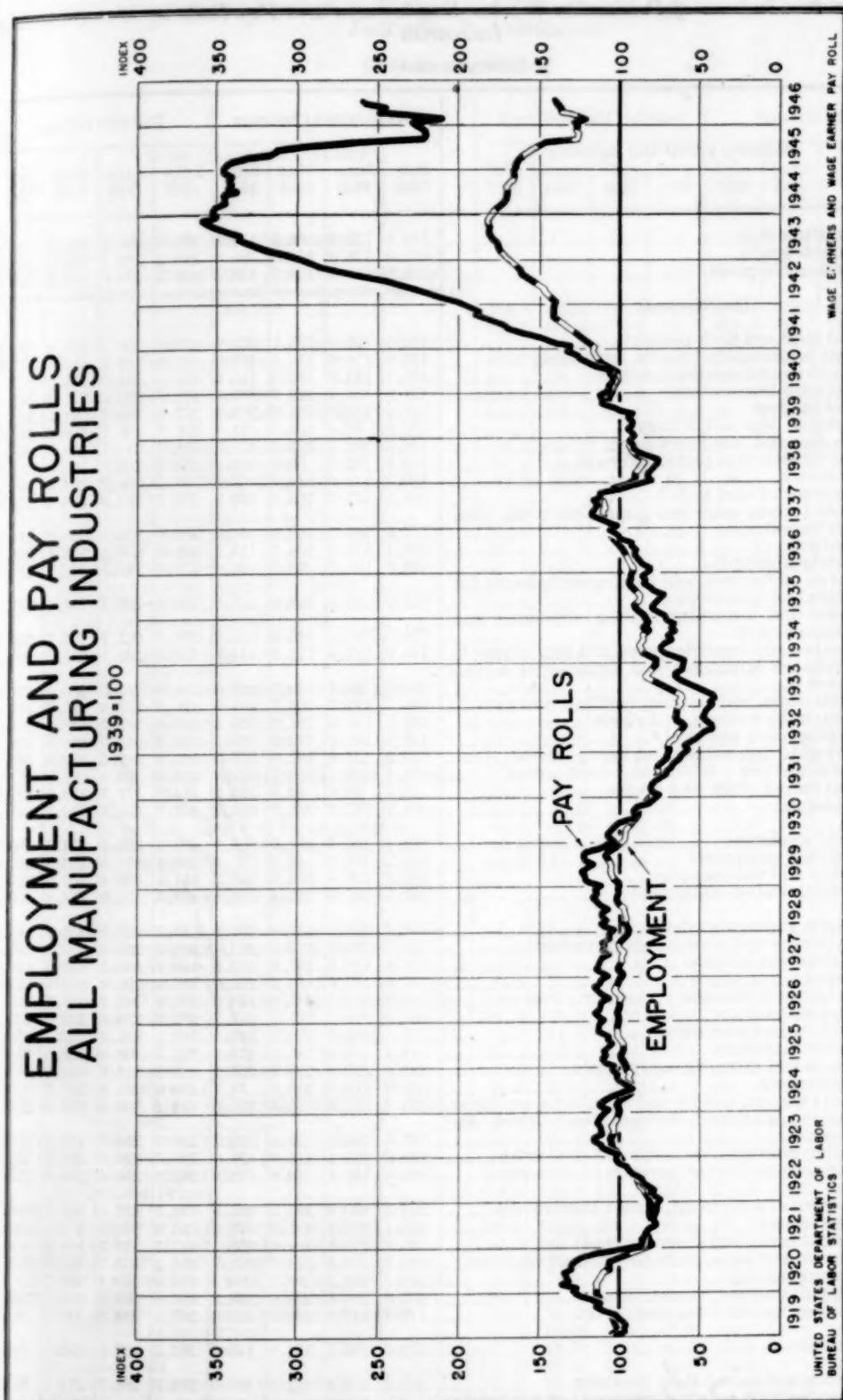


TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Production Worker Employment and Pay Rolls in Manufacturing Industries*¹

[1939 average=100]

Industry group and industry	Employment indexes				Pay-roll indexes			
	July 1946	June 1946	May 1946	July 1945	July 1946	June 1946	May 1946	July 1945
All manufacturing	140.8	139.2	136.9	152.1	260.5	256.8	247.8	298.7
Durable goods	161.0	158.0	154.6	195.3	286.2	280.1	266.6	387.1
Non-durable goods	124.9	124.4	123.0	118.0	235.3	234.0	229.4	212.1
<i>Durable goods</i>								
Iron and steel and their products	139.3	135.4	133.1	156.8	236.0	229.1	221.4	289.7
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	120.9	116.6	114.7	118.8	191.0	181.2	175.8	217.3
Gray-iron and semisteel castings	138.1	133.9	132.0	119.8	264.2	264.2	253.7	239.9
Malleable-iron castings	131.6	131.4	125.1	123.4	271.3	260.9	231.9	243.4
Steel castings	167.0	169.0	168.8	201.3	277.1	292.3	291.1	349.3
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	110.8	97.8	103.6	91.4	221.7	194.2	199.4	183.6
Tin cans and other tinware	136.6	132.0	125.3	133.3	248.7	234.7	206.7	233.9
Wire drawn from purchased rods	102.9	102.3	96.7	133.2	158.3	159.5	145.8	217.4
Wirework	120.2	112.7	114.9	99.1	237.2	210.7	204.3	196.0
Cutlery and edge tools ²	164.2	167.2	163.6	140.8	338.7	355.3	346.6	291.5
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	156.8	163.2	160.9	165.2	300.8	314.1	306.0	311.9
Hardware	125.1	126.0	124.6	118.5	240.6	239.3	236.4	238.4
Plumbers' supplies	104.8	104.1	99.0	88.4	175.4	175.5	166.7	159.7
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	117.0	112.6	108.6	123.6	210.7	206.3	191.6	231.9
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	154.0	148.8	145.9	155.8	274.7	265.7	263.7	289.4
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing ³	135.8	131.4	129.7	144.8	253.5	252.1	245.6	282.3
Fabricated structural and ornamental metal-work ²	149.8	143.4	140.2	155.0	250.8	241.0	236.0	278.8
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim	126.7	110.7	104.7	113.0	220.5	187.6	185.7	217.0
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	122.9	121.9	121.6	156.2	190.5	202.3	188.4	293.8
Forgings, iron and steel ²	164.5	168.6	169.6	198.5	267.7	288.3	281.8	374.9
Wrought pipe, welded and heavy riveted	130.5	127.6	141.6	258.0	195.0	207.5	233.9	565.5
Screw-machine products and wood screws	158.5	160.5	159.2	221.8	300.5	305.1	295.0	427.3
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	92.5	90.4	89.5	135.2	164.8	177.3	178.6	277.4
Firearms	264.9	257.6	266.7	383.2	497.7	501.4	510.9	843.4
Electrical machinery	194.4	193.3	187.3	254.1	333.7	333.9	311.5	460.6
Electrical equipment	154.2	153.2	148.1	213.2	258.4	257.5	245.3	387.0
Radios and phonographs	176.2	176.4	169.6	242.2	331.3	326.4	307.3	463.4
Communication equipment	267.7	266.9	263.6	296.4	461.3	476.0	414.6	508.2
Machinery, except electrical	194.4	191.3	187.0	209.2	333.5	329.5	310.8	384.4
Machinery and machine-shop products	173.7	171.8	170.6	202.7	300.5	296.4	283.5	365.9
Engines and turbines	233.8	218.5	197.9	319.8	448.3	415.5	369.9	640.6
Tractors	167.5	157.6	150.2	170.6	248.4	236.4	191.6	271.9
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	146.8	146.1	147.4	146.9	251.2	248.1	227.7	297.5
Machine tools	161.5	161.9	161.1	187.7	262.3	270.4	259.6	328.8
Machine-tool accessories	193.5	192.3	186.2	233.1	293.2	301.4	287.3	388.3
Textile machinery	144.7	146.5	145.5	113.8	265.3	265.5	269.5	210.9
Pumps and pumping equipment	225.2	225.5	218.5	265.1	413.2	416.1	401.6	542.8
Typewriters	111.9	113.1	110.1	78.7	220.6	211.8	208.7	159.4
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	170.0	167.9	163.3	136.0	314.2	309.0	295.4	266.4
Washing machines, wringers and driers, domestic	137.8	144.0	133.4	148.7	234.6	238.7	193.7	259.6
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	124.8	121.2	117.9	127.0	229.6	226.1	216.0	262.6
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment	165.6	161.1	153.6	128.8	263.3	256.6	252.8	228.7
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	290.2	290.8	298.1	993.9	538.5	537.5	538.3	2068.0
Locomotives	405.1	409.1	418.8	477.7	836.0	840.2	817.0	1017.1
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	186.6	174.3	181.6	236.1	343.5	325.2	326.6	450.9
Aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines	325.2	316.3	311.2	1191.7	606.9	585.5	565.9	2310.4
Aircraft engines	296.7	292.3	294.0	1869.5	465.6	469.4	469.2	3042.5
Shipbuilding and boatbuilding	252.8	264.6	279.0	997.9	467.4	483.4	498.5	2193.4
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	149.9	147.1	143.0	131.8	247.6	250.2	239.9	251.3
Automobiles	173.6	166.1	161.8	149.3	282.2	250.5	232.7	253.1
Nonferrous metals and their products	162.2	159.1	151.4	167.6	288.7	288.7	271.4	313.1
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals	112.2	107.3	101.9	138.3	204.1	191.8	176.3	267.5

See footnotes at end of table.

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TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Production Worker Employment and Pay Rolls in Manufacturing Industries* ¹—Continued

[1939 average=100]

Industry group and industry	Employment indexes				Pay-roll indexes			
	July 1946	June 1946	May 1946	July 1945	July 1946	June 1946	May 1946	July 1945
<i>Durable goods</i> —Continued								
Nonferrous metals and their products—Continued								
Alloying and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals, except aluminum	154.5	147.9	134.9	162.6	271.3	270.9	239.6	293.8
Clocks and watches	128.3	131.6	128.4	111.5	250.6	259.1	254.4	234.2
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	115.3	118.7	117.6	89.6	200.7	218.9	218.6	149.5
Silverware and plated ware	112.1	113.8	112.1	86.7	212.9	221.4	217.1	152.9
Lighting equipment	142.4	137.4	124.7	112.7	239.9	234.0	210.6	204.0
Aluminum manufactures ²	205.3	202.4	196.6	260.0	337.4	335.9	330.4	449.9
Sheet-metal work, not elsewhere classified	132.6	132.1	131.0	159.4	245.0	249.5	242.1	306.7
Lumber and timber basic products	143.4	141.3	137.0	124.2	267.0	281.0	261.8	222.1
Sawmills and logging camps	79.5	78.7	77.0	74.7	148.8	158.1	147.2	133.9
Planing and plywood mills	97.3	96.7	94.5	92.4	174.0	183.3	175.3	159.0
Furniture and finished lumber products	114.5	114.1	111.4	101.7	222.1	223.5	212.3	188.2
Mattresses and bedsprings	112.8	110.1	102.2	92.2	206.4	199.8	171.9	163.9
Furniture	101.1	100.6	98.4	90.4	194.2	196.2	188.3	165.7
Wooden boxes, other than cigar	97.6	97.2	97.2	101.2	203.4	203.0	196.4	204.5
Caskets and other morticians' goods	103.8	105.9	103.4	94.5	180.7	191.2	181.5	165.2
Wood preserving	106.6	103.5	104.8	88.5	241.3	231.4	221.3	194.2
Wood, turned and shaped	99.9	103.6	102.6	94.9	199.7	208.1	202.1	174.9
Stone, clay, and glass products	132.9	132.0	128.9	108.1	235.7	235.0	224.1	185.6
Glass and glassware	143.4	145.2	145.7	123.3	238.3	242.4	243.2	194.2
Glass products made from purchased glass ²	113.5	118.7	114.5	106.6	202.9	216.3	211.6	180.9
Cement	118.6	115.1	108.6	73.4	197.1	184.5	176.6	127.5
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	109.9	103.6	101.6	73.4	210.5	195.6	180.0	126.7
Pottery and related products	137.9	137.0	131.5	113.2	229.0	238.9	214.9	176.3
Gypsum	111.4	104.2	103.0	80.9	186.4	191.3	178.8	141.2
Wallboard, plaster (except gypsum), and mineral wool	108.2	128.9	122.4	114.6	216.0	255.5	231.5	221.3
Lime	92.9	91.5	91.5	78.9	201.1	196.9	188.7	163.0
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	91.2	89.6	86.6	70.7	147.0	144.6	143.1	114.1
Abrasives	243.4	241.0	236.3	265.4	404.5	399.1	376.6	458.1
Asbestos products ²	121.0	121.4	113.0	120.0	255.4	253.5	231.1	252.8
<i>Nondurable goods</i>								
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	103.5	104.8	103.6	91.8	214.7	218.6	214.8	172.6
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares	112.4	113.0	111.9	103.3	246.1	248.2	244.3	209.8
Cotton smallwares	103.0	105.9	106.4	97.8	207.6	207.0	201.1	187.2
Silk and rayon goods	75.9	76.6	75.7	70.5	166.3	166.8	166.9	138.4
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	103.9	107.3	106.7	90.5	228.6	238.5	237.7	177.2
Hosiery	71.2	71.9	70.9	59.6	130.9	133.0	130.8	93.7
Knitted cloth	101.2	102.5	100.6	90.4	209.0	213.2	201.8	163.6
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	106.8	111.2	111.4	92.7	228.6	235.5	237.4	172.3
Knitted underwear	90.6	91.6	89.4	86.0	189.7	189.7	179.8	162.0
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	94.2	95.2	94.4	84.4	178.8	184.5	175.4	145.0
Carpets and rugs, wool	92.7	93.7	91.8	74.1	165.2	169.5	163.3	131.1
Hats, fur-felt	73.7	75.7	75.4	59.2	153.3	160.0	160.3	117.7
Jute goods, except felts	104.9	108.1	104.2	88.9	217.2	224.5	216.3	171.5
Cordage and twine	118.8	126.5	125.5	117.5	229.3	246.1	235.4	227.5
Apparel and other finished textile products	126.5	130.6	128.3	110.0	245.7	263.3	258.8	191.2
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified	87.6	89.4	87.8	86.0	167.9	181.2	175.6	151.5
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	76.4	76.5	74.9	68.1	155.3	159.6	156.5	123.9
Underwear and neckwear, men's	70.6	72.8	73.1	71.6	158.8	167.3	164.8	145.5
Work shirts	99.1	101.6	98.9	105.4	202.9	213.3	206.2	196.4
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified	72.0	78.3	78.2	64.6	142.4	159.8	163.1	109.2
Corsets and allied garments	83.2	86.4	84.9	71.0	156.1	167.6	161.5	122.6
Millinery	70.3	68.0	70.4	67.0	122.5	105.0	99.0	108.4
Handkerchiefs	46.1	47.4	47.4	50.7	93.2	98.8	100.1	93.2
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	79.8	79.1	74.3	60.6	168.5	173.5	161.3	121.6
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc.	100.2	99.1	98.8	101.3	198.3	183.6	193.6	182.3
Textile bags	122.1	114.0	101.0	122.0	208.1	207.6	176.1	208.3

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Production Worker Employment and Pay Rolls in Manufacturing Industries* ¹—Continued

[1939 average=100]

Industry group and industry	Employment indexes				Pay-roll indexes			
	July 1946	June 1946	May 1946	July 1945	July 1946	June 1946	May 1946	July 1945
<i>Nondurable goods—Continued</i>								
Leather and leather products	102.3	103.1	102.6	90.1	197.3	203.4	203.1	167.8
Leather	88.1	90.9	91.7	81.2	156.5	163.0	158.5	146.6
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	94.3	96.0	96.5	85.5	167.1	173.3	173.3	147.7
Boots and shoes	88.6	89.1	88.4	77.7	177.6	183.0	184.6	149.0
Leather gloves and mittens	113.5	115.1	114.8	113.3	220.9	222.9	215.0	201.8
Trunks and suitcases	171.4	168.2	166.8	153.3	304.8	314.7	308.9	245.5
Food	129.0	119.0	118.1	127.5	231.5	205.0	201.9	212.7
Slaughtering and meat packing	102.4	106.5	112.9	105.7	179.9	167.4	181.4	175.0
Butter	147.1	146.2	141.1	141.4	267.1	258.7	244.1	236.4
Condensed and evaporated milk	162.1	162.1	151.7	166.7	305.9	311.3	281.6	296.5
Ice cream	132.7	126.3	117.8	112.9	221.7	203.6	185.7	169.0
Flour	114.3	108.7	109.7	121.4	221.1	190.9	181.5	218.3
Feeds, prepared	140.8	135.0	135.1	143.5	251.9	230.7	237.8	228.9
Cereal preparations	127.4	133.2	134.0	124.4	219.5	238.6	221.2	225.9
Baking	101.4	101.5	103.5	108.4	178.5	168.8	170.8	174.6
Sugar refining, cane	100.0	100.5	96.1	93.3	167.5	162.4	155.0	145.1
Sugar, beet	43.6	45.2	46.1	41.9	72.0	70.6	73.6	65.8
Confectionery	92.7	94.8	98.2	98.6	170.0	180.4	173.6	164.2
Beverages, nonalcoholic	120.8	117.1	113.0	124.8	186.1	172.1	160.4	177.7
Malt liquors	144.0	141.1	138.5	146.7	222.3	210.1	201.0	230.7
Canning and preserving	136.0	82.3	70.4	123.8	323.4	180.4	149.8	250.2
Tobacco manufactures	90.7	92.1	91.2	83.4	178.3	184.1	181.1	151.9
Cigarettes	122.5	122.6	121.4	123.5	211.1	217.8	216.6	200.5
Cigars	73.9	77.0	76.5	59.9	160.1	167.8	164.2	114.6
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff	83.1	79.3	77.1	91.6	140.5	135.7	129.2	148.8
Paper and allied products	135.9	137.3	135.3	116.4	243.8	244.4	237.4	198.0
Paper and pulp	120.9	121.9	120.0	103.4	218.4	216.7	212.7	180.7
Paper goods, other	120.8	123.4	123.1	111.4	211.8	218.1	211.8	181.8
Envelopes	116.8	120.4	118.1	105.8	198.4	210.4	202.0	165.5
Paper bags	127.3	128.9	127.5	110.7	236.5	233.9	220.6	198.5
Paper boxes	123.8	125.2	123.2	108.9	222.6	225.5	216.7	180.6
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	116.8	115.7	114.3	96.8	186.0	184.2	179.5	137.8
Newspapers and periodicals	109.6	109.4	109.0	90.5	163.7	162.0	160.9	119.7
Printing, book and job	126.3	123.8	121.3	103.8	209.1	204.6	197.0	155.1
Lithographing	110.8	110.2	109.1	93.2	173.2	176.3	170.4	134.6
Bookbinding	121.0	121.8	120.9	105.0	240.7	247.7	236.8	181.3
Chemicals and allied products	162.5	165.1	166.8	223.2	284.3	285.1	283.8	397.8
Paints, varnishes, and colors	126.6	125.3	124.9	102.9	199.5	199.7	194.2	168.8
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	187.5	187.5	187.6	182.5	307.0	305.8	304.5	272.6
Perfumes and cosmetics	121.0	116.5	117.3	119.8	191.2	186.3	185.0	176.9
Soap	103.2	103.5	103.3	95.5	170.2	172.8	166.6	159.6
Rayon and allied products	118.0	121.0	120.9	111.2	197.6	198.3	199.7	184.3
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified	165.0	169.0	167.5	162.4	283.7	283.0	277.8	291.8
Explosives and safety fuses	169.8	168.7	175.8	1207.2	264.5	265.9	266.7	1879.8
Compressed and liquefied gases	145.9	146.2	145.6	148.4	238.8	239.4	236.4	270.2
Ammunition, small-arms	178.0	178.0	177.3	1345.7	335.7	331.3	318.8	2636.2
Fireworks	224.9	282.9	283.6	1510.1	551.8	708.5	677.6	4070.7
Cottonseed oil	55.6	59.4	65.1	76.2	119.8	126.8	140.2	154.0
Fertilizers	102.4	107.2	131.2	104.4	245.4	249.7	301.3	247.4
Products of petroleum and coal	142.7	140.6	136.9	128.0	244.3	236.0	228.2	234.6
Petroleum refining	137.4	136.1	134.4	127.6	228.0	223.3	221.5	227.7
Coke and byproducts	117.8	113.9	104.6	101.1	215.1	194.7	168.7	194.5
Paving materials	86.7	85.4	82.1	72.5	174.2	170.4	159.1	148.6
Roofing materials	149.4	146.7	143.7	117.2	279.5	277.0	262.0	216.9
Rubber products	180.2	186.1	182.7	160.5	327.2	337.2	327.6	298.7
Rubber tires and inner tubes	183.1	195.8	193.4	162.1	304.3	318.3	314.2	286.8
Rubber boots and shoes	118.4	122.2	120.0	113.1	226.6	244.8	236.0	214.9
Rubber goods, other	133.8	132.3	129.4	127.8	255.9	255.2	241.4	237.5

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Production Worker Employment and Pay Rolls in Manufacturing Industries*¹—Continued

[1939 average=100]

Industry group and industry	Employment indexes				Pay-roll indexes			
	July 1946	June 1946	May 1946	July 1945	July 1946	June 1946	May 1946	July 1945
<i>Nondurable goods—Continued</i>								
Miscellaneous industries	169.6	169.4	165.0	165.9	312.5	315.6	300.5	315.0
Instruments (professional and scientific) and fire-control equipment	200.2	196.7	197.5	473.3	343.0	339.4	330.9	835.0
Photographic apparatus	145.9	141.6	138.8	154.9	240.0	233.3	221.2	259.6
Optical instruments and ophthalmic goods	181.8	183.0	182.8	178.8	314.9	314.2	303.6	294.0
Pianos, organs, and parts	118.5	117.9	114.2	101.7	210.5	219.6	205.4	197.9
Games, toys, and dolls	111.3	112.0	110.2	77.2	222.1	222.7	220.9	151.2
Buttons	89.7	92.5	92.0	82.4	185.3	196.7	189.7	166.0
Fire extinguishers	202.1	200.0	197.1	420.7	397.1	406.4	408.4	910.5

¹ Indexes for the major industry groups have been adjusted to levels indicated by the final 1944 data made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency.

² Revisions have been made as follows in the indexes for earlier months:

Cutlery and edge tools.—April 1946 pay roll to 313.6.

Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing.—January through April 1946 employment to 124.7, 105.9, 119.0, and 128.1; pay roll to 227.5, 192.3, 218.7, and 242.1.

Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork.—March and April 1946 employment to 128.5 and 136.0; pay roll to 211.4 and 232.6.

Forgeings, iron and steel.—March and April 1946 pay roll to 264.0 and 289.1.

Aluminum manufactures.—February through April 1946 employment to 110.9, 177.9, and 187.7; pay roll to 181.6, 299.1, and 320.7.

Glass products made from purchased glass.—April 1946 employment to 109.7; pay roll to 195.9.

Asbestos products.—April 1946 employment to 108.5; pay roll to 219.1.

TABLE 3.—*Estimated Number of Employees in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries*

Industry group and industry	Estimated number of employees (in thousands)			
	July 1946	June 1946	May 1946	July 1945
Mining: ¹				
Anthracite	68.1	66.1	67.0	64.3
Bituminous coal ²	331	331	258	323
Metal ² :	66.0	65.6	59.7	65.8
Iron ²	27.3	26.8	20.2	24.1
Copper	17.7	14.7	15.5	20.2
Lead and zinc	11.4	14.7	14.6	13.6
Gold and silver	7.1	7.1	7.1	5.2
Miscellaneous	2.5	2.3	2.3	2.7
Telephone	565	545	532	419
Telegraph ³	42.3	42.2	42.7	44.9
Electric light and power	247	244	241	204
Street railways and busses	250	249	247	226
Hotels (year-round)	384	387	387	353
Power laundries	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)
Cleaning and dyeing	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)
Class I steam railroads ⁴	1,349	1,330	1,307	1,451
Water transportation ⁵	120	120	131	163

¹ Data are for production workers only.

² Revisions have been made as follows in the data for earlier months:

Bituminous coal.—March and April 1946 to 348 and 75.3.

Metal mining.—February through April 1946 to 59.5, 57.7, and 55.5.

Iron mining.—February through April 1946 to 18.0, 16.0, and 16.4.

³ Excludes messengers, and approximately 6,000 employees of general and divisional headquarters, and of cable companies.

⁴ The change in definition from "wage earner" to "production worker" in the power laundries and cleaning and dyeing industries results in the omission of driver-salesmen. This causes a significant difference in the data. New series are being prepared.

⁵ Source: Interstate Commerce Commission.

⁶ Based on estimates prepared by the U. S. Maritime Commission covering employment on active deep-sea American-flag steam and motor merchant vessels of 1,000 gross tons and over. Excludes vessels under bareboat charter to or owned by the Army or Navy.

TABLE 4.—*Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries*

[1939 average=100]

Industry group and industry	Employment indexes				Pay-roll indexes			
	July 1946	June 1946	May 1946	July 1945	July 1946	June 1946	May 1946	July 1945
Mining:								
Anthracite	82.2	79.8	81.0	77.6	155.7	187.1	180.4	142.7
Bituminous coal ¹	89.3	89.3	69.6	87.1	190.5	239.1	100.2	190.7
Metal ¹ :	74.8	74.4	67.7	74.6	128.0	126.9	106.4	121.1
Iron	135.9	132.8	100.5	119.6	247.9	239.5	144.4	201.6
Copper	74.1	61.8	65.2	84.9	138.1	106.8	110.6	141.7
Lead and zinc	73.2	94.7	94.0	87.2	127.8	180.5	179.8	161.1
Gold and silver	28.7	28.8	28.6	21.0	38.6	41.5	39.6	26.0
Miscellaneous	62.5	58.4	57.2	68.1	96.7	95.5	92.1	113.8
Quarrying and nonmetallic	101.2	98.9	95.7	81.3	212.3	206.8	189.9	161.9
Crude-petroleum production ²	95.1	93.7	92.8	83.8	143.2	146.6	145.4	135.7
Public utilities:								
Telephone	177.7	171.7	167.6	131.9	268.8	259.9	254.0	177.7
Telegraph	112.4	112.1	113.5	119.3	178.6	174.9	175.6	175.0
Electric light and power	101.2	99.9	98.6	83.6	150.2	148.4	144.2	119.6
Street railways and busses	128.9	128.7	127.6	116.8	206.7	199.5	195.2	177.1
Wholesale trade:								
Retail trade:	107.5	106.9	106.0	94.9	174.5	172.6	169.6	144.7
Food	106.3	107.2	107.2	94.9	172.6	171.2	166.2	136.4
General merchandise	101.3	103.5	105.0	100.0	171.5	170.0	166.1	145.5
Apparel	117.6	121.0	121.9	107.9	187.1	188.8	180.5	148.0
Furniture and housefurnishings	107.8	114.3	114.3	99.9	177.5	186.9	181.0	150.0
Automotive	78.1	77.5	76.7	61.8	129.2	125.7	123.3	91.1
Lumber and building materials	93.4	91.3	90.0	69.4	156.8	152.9	148.7	108.3
Hotels (year-round) ³	111.1	109.4	107.7	92.2	180.1	177.2	173.5	138.7
Power laundries	119.0	119.9	119.9	109.4	204.5	205.0	204.6	171.2
Cleaning and dyeing	113.7	112.3	110.7	108.3	193.3	190.9	186.2	169.7
Class I steam railroads ⁴	130.1	131.6	129.6	121.2	231.4	236.6	227.0	197.7
Water transportation ⁵	136.6	134.8	132.3	146.9	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)
	228.2	229.0	250.6	310.0	490.1	467.4	486.3	755.5

¹ Revisions have been made as follows in the indexes for earlier months:

Bituminous coal.—March and April 1946 employment to 93.9, and 20.3; March pay roll to 230.9.

Metal mining.—February through April 1946 employment to 67.5, 65.5, and 62.9; pay roll to 92.8, 102.1, and 102.0.

Iron mining.—February through April 1946 employment to 89.3, 79.3, and 81.7; pay roll to 71.0, 111.5, and 133.3.

² Does not include well drilling or rig building.³ Cash payments only; additional value of board, room, and tips, not included.⁴ Source: Interstate Commerce Commission.⁵ Not available.⁶ Based on estimates prepared by the U. S. Maritime Commission covering employment on active deep-sea American-flag steam and motor merchant vessels of 1,000 gross tons and over. Excludes vessels under bareboat charter to or owned by the Army or Navy.

Labor Turn-Over in Manufacturing, Mining, and Public Utilities, July 1946

THE July hiring rate in manufacturing industries was 78 per 1,000, as high as during July 1943, when war production was in full swing. The separation rate of 59 per 1,000 factory workers was the lowest July figure since 1941.

Accession rates in both the durable and the nondurable components of manufacturing showed substantial gains over the month. Widespread increases were reported in the various industry groups, notably in iron and steel, automobiles, and food.

Although quits, constituting over three-fourths of all separations, rose slightly over the month, the quit rate of 45 per 1,000 was the lowest for any July since 1942. Nevertheless, the July 1946 quit rate was closer to that for the war period than for the prewar period, when quits were considerably lower. The lay-off rate of 8 per 1,000 was the lowest since April 1945.

For the first time since April of this year the accession rate for men exceeded that for women, reflecting increased hires in the food and automobile groups. In the food group the rise was due to the increased availability of livestock, and in automobiles to the increase in raw material supplies.

The separation rate for women continued higher than that for men in July, mostly because of a higher proportion of quits. The involuntary separation rate was somewhat lower for women than for men.

TABLE 1.—*Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (Per 100 Employees) in Manufacturing Industries*¹

Class of turn-over and year	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Total separation:												
1946.....	6.8	6.3	6.6	6.3	6.3	5.7	5.9					
1945.....	6.2	6.0	6.8	6.6	7.0	7.9	7.7	17.9	12.0	8.6	7.1	5.9
1943.....	7.1	7.1	7.7	7.5	6.7	7.1	7.6	8.3	8.1	7.0	6.4	6.6
1939.....	3.2	2.6	3.1	3.5	3.5	3.3	3.3	3.0	2.8	2.9	3.0	3.5
Quit:												
1946.....	4.3	3.9	4.2	4.3	4.2	4.0	4.5					
1945.....	4.6	4.3	5.0	4.8	4.8	5.1	5.2	6.2	6.7	5.6	4.7	4.0
1943.....	4.5	4.7	5.4	5.4	4.8	5.2	5.6	6.3	6.3	5.2	4.5	4.4
1939.....	.9	.6	.8	.8	.7	.7	.7	.8	1.1	.9	.8	.7
Discharge:												
1946.....	.5	.5	.4	.4	.4	.3	.4					
1945.....	.7	.7	.7	.6	.6	.7	.6	.7	.6	.5	.5	.4
1943.....	.5	.5	.6	.5	.6	.6	.7	.7	.6	.6	.6	.6
1939.....	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.2	.2	.1
Lay-off: ²												
1946.....	1.8	1.7	1.8	1.4	1.5	1.2	2.8					
1945.....	.6	.7	.7	.8	1.2	1.7	1.5	10.7	4.5	2.3	1.7	1.3
1943.....	.7	.5	.5	.6	.5	.5	.5	.5	.5	.7	.7	1.0
1939.....	2.2	1.9	2.2	2.6	2.7	2.5	2.5	2.1	1.6	1.8	2.0	2.7
Military and miscellaneous: ³												
1946.....	.2	.2	.2	.2	.2	.2	.2					
1945.....	.3	.3	.4	.4	.4	.4	.4					
1943.....	1.4	1.4	1.2	1.0	.8	.8	.8	.8	.7	.7	.6	.6
Accession:												
1946.....	8.5	6.8	7.1	6.7	6.1	6.7	7.8					
1945.....	7.0	5.0	4.9	4.7	5.0	5.9	5.8	5.9	7.4	8.6	8.7	6.9
1943.....	8.3	7.9	8.3	7.4	7.2	8.4	7.8	7.6	7.7	7.2	6.6	5.2
1939.....	4.1	3.1	3.3	2.9	3.3	3.9	4.2	5.1	6.2	5.9	4.1	2.8

¹ Month-to-month employment changes as indicated by labor turn-over rates are not precisely comparable to those shown by the Bureau's employment and pay-roll reports, as the former are based on data for the entire month while the latter refer, for the most part, to a one-week period ending nearest the middle of the month. In addition, labor turn-over data, beginning in January 1943, refer to all employees, whereas the employment and pay-roll reports relate only to production workers. The turn-over sample is not so extensive as that of the employment and pay-roll survey—proportionately fewer small plants are included; printing and publishing, and certain seasonal industries, such as canning and preserving, are not covered.

² Preliminary.

³ Including temporary, indeterminate, and permanent lay-offs.

⁴ Miscellaneous separations comprise not more than 0.1 in these figures. In 1939 these data were included with quits.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (Per 100 Employees) in Selected Groups and Industries,¹ July 1946²*

Industry group and industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Military and miscellaneous		Total accession	
	July	June	July	June	July	June	July	June	July	June	July	June
<i>Manufacturing</i>												
Durable goods.....	5.9	5.6	4.5	3.9	0.4	0.4	0.8	1.1	0.2	0.2	7.9	7.3
Nondurable goods.....	5.8	5.8	4.5	4.1	.3	.3	.8	1.2	.2	.2	7.8	6.1
Iron and steel and their products.....	4.7	4.4	3.8	3.2	.3	.3	.4	.7	.2	.2	6.7	6.0
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills.....	3.6	3.0	2.9	2.3	.1	.1	.4	.4	.2	.2	4.9	4.5
Gray-iron castings.....	7.3	7.1	6.0	5.7	.7	.9	.2	.3	.4	.2	9.2	8.3
Malleable-iron castings.....	6.7	8.8	5.7	6.2	.5	.4	.2	2.0	.3	.2	7.6	10.1
Steel castings.....	5.4	4.3	3.0	2.8	.4	.4	1.7	.9	.3	.2	4.6	4.2
Cast-iron pipe and fittings.....	6.1	10.3	6.0	5.2	(3)	.3	.1	4.6	(3)	.2	12.3	7.0
Tin cans and other tinware.....	10.2	9.5	7.8	7.7	1.9	1.5	.3	.1	.2	.2	14.9	15.2
Wire products.....	3.6	3.7	3.0	2.6	.3	.3	.1	.4	.2	.4	6.5	5.2
Cutlery and edge tools.....	5.4	5.7	4.4	4.2	.6	.6	.3	.8	.1	.1	7.4	6.6
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws).....	4.5	3.8	3.8	3.1	.4	.4	.1	.1	.2	.2	5.8	5.7
Hardware.....	6.2	5.3	5.4	4.4	.5	.5	.2	.1	.1	.3	7.4	8.3
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment.....	6.5	6.5	5.2	4.6	.7	.4	.4	1.1	.2	.4	12.7	10.0
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings.....	5.7	4.9	4.4	3.8	.6	.6	.5	.4	.2	.1	7.6	7.7
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing.....	7.5	6.8	6.2	5.4	.6	.4	.5	.8	.2	.2	11.5	9.6
Fabricated structural-metal products.....	6.2	5.0	4.4	3.1	.6	.4	.7	1.3	.5	.2	9.1	9.0
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets.....	3.9	3.3	3.1	2.5	.2	.2	.2	.2	.4	.4	4.8	4.7
Forgings, iron and steel.....	4.4	6.0	3.5	2.8	.2	.2	.6	2.9	.1	.1	7.8	4.0
Electrical machinery.....	4.5	5.3	3.5	3.4	.3	.3	.5	1.4	.2	.2	6.4	6.3
Electrical equipment for industrial use.....	3.5	4.7	2.7	2.9	.2	.3	.5	1.3	.1	.2	4.7	4.5
Radios, radio equipment, and phonographs.....	6.4	6.1	5.1	4.2	.6	.4	.5	1.4	.2	.1	9.1	8.1
Communication equipment, except radios.....	2.5	4.5	1.4	2.3	.1	.2	.8	1.8	.2	.2	3.5	5.2
Machinery, except electrical.....	4.1	3.9	3.2	2.7	.4	.4	.4	.7	.1	.1	5.8	5.5
Engines and turbines.....	4.2	6.7	3.3	2.4	.3	.3	.5	3.9	.1	.1	7.9	7.5
Agricultural machinery and tractors.....	4.8	3.7	3.9	2.7	.3	.2	.4	.7	.2	.1	5.9	5.4
Machine tools.....	2.3	2.5	1.8	1.7	.1	.2	.2	.4	.2	.2	3.4	3.9
Machine-tool accessories.....	3.7	3.7	3.0	2.4	.3	.4	.3	.8	.1	.1	5.8	5.2
Metalworking machinery and equipment, not elsewhere classified.....	3.5	3.5	2.9	2.8	.2	.3	.3	.2	.1	.2	4.6	4.7
General industrial machinery, except pumps.....	4.3	4.0	3.3	2.8	.4	.4	.5	.7	.1	.1	5.5	5.3
Pumps and pumping equipment.....	4.3	3.5	3.2	2.8	.6	.3	.3	.3	.2	.1	6.7	4.9
Transportation equipment, except automobiles.....	9.2	9.6	3.9	3.7	.6	.5	4.6	5.3	.1	.1	8.0	8.2
Aircraft.....	5.0	5.8	3.6	3.4	.4	.4	.9	1.9	.1	.1	8.0	7.6
Aircraft parts, including engines.....	4.5	6.8	2.3	3.1	.4	.4	1.7	3.2	.1	.1	6.1	5.7
Shipbuilding and repairs.....	15.2	14.6	5.0	4.3	.8	.7	9.3	9.5	.1	.1	8.9	9.1
Automobiles.....	6.4	5.1	5.6	3.6	.4	.3	.3	1.1	.1	.1	11.0	8.6
Motor vehicles, bodies, and trailers.....	7.2	5.0	6.3	3.8	.5	.2	.3	.9	.1	.1	11.4	9.3
Motor-vehicle parts and accessories.....	4.8	5.0	3.8	3.2	.4	.3	.4	1.3	.2	.2	9.9	6.9
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	5.5	4.8	4.2	3.7	.6	.4	.5	.5	.2	.2	7.0	6.4
Primary smelting and refining, except aluminum and magnesium.....	5.0	3.2	4.1	2.5	.4	.2	.3	.2	.2	.3	6.9	4.2
Rolling and drawing of copper and copper alloys.....	4.3	3.4	3.7	2.7	.3	.2	.2	.4	.1	.1	5.1	5.2
Lighting equipment.....	7.8	5.2	6.7	4.3	.6	.3	.5	.4	(3)	.2	11.5	7.7

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2—Continued
 Nonferrous metals and their products—Continued
 Nonferrous metals and their products—Continued
 Lumber and wood products—Continued
 Furniture and fixtures—Continued
 Stone, clay, glass, cement, brick, pottery—Continued
 Textile machinery—Continued
 Cotton and silk—Continued
 Woolen and rayon—Continued
 Hosiery and knitwear—Continued
 Apparel and accessories—Continued
 Men's clothing—Continued
 Men's clothing—Continued
 Leather and leather goods—Continued
 Food and meat products—Continued
 Grains—Continued
 Tobacco products—Continued
 Paper products—Continued
 Paints and varnishes—Continued
 Rayon and other fibers—Continued
 Industrial plasters—Continued
 Products of petroleum—Continued
 Rubber products—Continued
 Rubber products—Continued
 Rubber products—Continued
 Miscellaneous products—Continued
 Miscellaneous products—Continued
 Miscellaneous products—Continued
 See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (Per 100 Employees) in Selected Groups and Industries,¹ July 1946²—Continued*

Industry group and industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Military and miscellaneous		Total accession	
	July	June	July	June	July	June	July	June	July	June	July	June
<i>Manufacturing—Continued</i>												
Nonferrous metals and their products—Continued												
Nonferrous-metal foundries, except aluminum and magnesium	5.0	5.4	3.5	3.9	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.2	0.2	5.4	6.2
Lumber and timber basic products	9.0	8.7	8.1	7.8	.4	.5	.4	.2	.1	.2	11.1	10.3
Sawmills	8.8	8.6	8.0	7.8	.4	.5	.3	.2	.1	.1	10.6	10.1
Planing and plywood mills	6.4	5.2	5.7	4.4	.4	.4	.2	.2	.1	.2	8.9	8.1
Furniture and finished lumber products	8.0	7.2	6.9	6.3	.6	.5	.3	.3	.2	.1	10.0	9.8
Furniture, including mattresses and bedsprings	8.1	7.3	7.0	6.3	.6	.6	.3	.3	.2	.1	10.0	9.8
Stone, clay, and glass products	5.4	5.7	4.2	4.5	.5	.4	.5	.6	.2	.2	7.8	8.3
Glass and glass products	5.6	6.1	3.8	4.2	.5	.4	1.0	1.2	.3	.3	7.8	8.0
Cement	6.5	6.4	5.6	5.5	.6	.6	.2	.1	.1	.2	9.9	9.5
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	6.4	7.4	5.3	6.4	.8	.6	.2	.3	.1	.1	8.5	9.7
Pottery and related products	4.6	5.1	4.0	4.1	.4	.4	.1	.4	.1	.2	7.3	7.6
Textile-mill products	6.3	5.7	5.5	4.9	.3	.3	.3	.3	.2	.2	6.5	6.6
Cotton	7.4	6.6	6.8	5.9	.3	.4	.1	.1	.2	.2	7.7	7.8
Silk and rayon goods	5.4	5.3	4.7	4.6	.3	.3	.2	.3	.2	.1	6.1	6.0
Woolen and worsted, except dyeing and finishing	4.9	4.4	4.0	3.3	.4	.4	.3	.5	.2	.2	4.7	4.4
Hosiery, full-fashioned	4.1	3.6	3.6	3.3	.3	.2	.1	.1	.1	.1	4.4	4.7
Hosiery, seamless	5.8	5.5	5.5	5.2	.1	.1	.2	.1	.1	.1	6.0	7.5
Knitted underwear	5.2	5.7	4.8	5.1	.3	.2	.1	.4	.1	.1	6.3	6.5
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	4.2	3.3	3.1	2.4	.4	.4	.2	.2	.5	.3	4.9	4.3
Apparel and other finished textile products	6.7	5.1	6.2	4.6	.2	.2	.2	.2	.1	.1	6.8	6.6
Men's and boys' suits, coats, and overcoats	4.6	3.2	4.3	2.9	.1	.1	.2	.1	(3)	.1	4.6	4.0
Men's and boys' furnishings, work clothing, and allied garments	7.1	5.4	6.6	5.0	.3	.2	.1	.2	.1	(3)	6.8	7.7
Leather and leather products	5.4	4.8	4.7	4.0	.2	.2	.4	.5	.1	.1	5.3	5.3
Leather	4.7	4.9	3.2	3.3	.1	.2	1.3	1.2	.1	.2	3.1	3.7
Boots and shoes	5.5	4.9	5.0	4.2	.2	.2	.2	.4	.1	.1	5.7	5.6
Food and kindred products	7.2	9.3	4.1	4.4	.4	.4	2.5	4.3	.2	.2	13.8	6.2
Meat products	8.8	13.7	3.5	3.8	.4	.4	4.6	9.2	.3	.3	19.7	5.4
Grain-mill products	8.8	6.4	5.5	4.1	.8	.5	2.3	1.4	.2	.4	13.2	9.1
Tobacco manufactures	6.1	6.2	4.9	5.5	.3	.3	.7	.2	.2	.2	8.8	7.7
Paper and allied products	5.8	5.6	4.8	4.6	.5	.5	.3	.3	.2	.2	6.7	7.4
Paper and pulp	5.1	5.1	4.1	4.1	.5	.5	.3	.3	.2	.2	5.7	6.6
Paper boxes	7.5	6.9	6.6	6.0	.7	.7	(3)	.1	.2	.1	9.0	9.4
Chemicals and allied products	3.4	3.2	2.7	2.4	.3	.3	.2	.3	.2	.2	4.8	4.8
Paints, varnishes, and colors	3.2	2.8	2.4	2.2	.4	.2	.2	.2	.2	.2	4.7	4.5
Rayon and allied products	3.3	3.2	2.6	2.5	.3	.2	.2	.2	.2	.3	3.7	4.3
Industrial chemicals, except explosives	3.6	3.2	2.7	2.4	.4	.3	.3	.3	.2	.2	5.5	5.1
Products of petroleum and coal	2.0	2.0	1.3	1.2	.2	.2	.4	.4	.1	.2	2.7	2.9
Petroleum refining	1.8	1.8	1.2	1.1	.1	.1	.4	.4	.1	.2	2.5	2.7
Rubber products	4.6	4.3	4.0	3.6	.3	.3	.1	.2	.2	.2	6.2	5.4
Rubber tires and inner tubes	4.0	3.1	3.6	2.7	.2	.2	.1	.1	.1	.1	5.6	4.0
Rubber footwear and related products	5.4	5.9	4.8	5.1	.2	.2	.2	.2	.2	.4	6.0	6.5
Miscellaneous rubber industries	5.1	5.5	4.3	4.6	.5	.4	.1	.2	.2	.3	7.0	7.6
Miscellaneous industries	4.4	4.2	3.1	2.9	.4	.3	.7	.8	.2	.2	5.7	5.3

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (Per 100 Employees) in Selected Groups and Industries,¹ July 1946* ²—Continued

Industry group and industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Military and miscellaneous		Total accession	
	July	June	July	June	July	June	July	June	July	June	July	June
<i>Nonmanufacturing</i>												
Metal mining	5.8	5.6	4.7	4.7	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.3	7.3	6.6
Iron ore	2.4	2.3	1.6	1.7	.3	.1	.2	.1	.3	.4	4.2	3.6
Copper ore	8.2	8.2	7.1	7.0	.6	.8	.3	.2	.2	.2	10.0	9.6
Lead and zinc ore	5.8	6.0	4.3	5.1	.3	.3	1.0	.4	.2	.2	6.0	5.9
Coal mining:												
Anthracite mining	1.6	(4)	1.4	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	.1	(4)	.1	(4)	2.6
Bituminous-coal mining	3.9	3.6	3.1	2.9	.2	.2	.3	.2	.3	.3	4.7	5.9
Public utilities:												
Telephone	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)
Telegraph	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)

¹ Since January 1943 manufacturing firms reporting labor turn-over have been assigned industry codes on the basis of current products. Most plants in the employment and pay-roll sample, comprising those which were in operation in 1939, are classified according to their major activity at that time, regardless of any subsequent change in major products.

² Preliminary.

³ Less than 0.05.

⁴ Not available.

TABLE 3.—*Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (Per 100 Employees) for Men and Women in All Manufacturing and Selected Groups,¹ July 1946* ²

Industry group	Total separation				Quit				Accession			
	Men		Women		Men		Women		Men		Women	
	July	June	July	June	July	June	July	June	July	June	July	June
All manufacturing	5.4	5.5	6.7	6.3	4.0	3.6	5.6	5.0	7.8	6.5	7.6	7.0
Durable goods	5.7	5.4	5.9	6.1	4.4	3.8	4.7	4.5	7.8	7.2	7.5	7.3
Nondurable goods	5.0	5.7	7.0	6.4	3.5	3.3	6.0	5.2	7.8	5.5	7.6	6.8
Iron and steel and their products	4.8	4.3	6.3	6.0	3.8	3.1	5.0	4.2	7.0	6.2	7.5	6.4
Electrical machinery	3.5	4.3	6.1	6.7	2.5	2.4	5.0	4.9	5.2	5.2	8.4	8.0
Machinery, except electrical	4.0	3.7	4.7	4.8	3.1	2.5	3.6	3.5	5.8	5.4	5.6	5.8
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	8.7	9.6	5.9	7.0	3.9	3.8	3.3	3.7	8.5	8.4	5.0	5.1
Automobiles	5.6	4.4	4.6	5.1	4.8	2.8	3.2	3.7	10.1	8.0	7.4	7.5
Nonferrous metals and their products	5.3	4.6	5.4	5.6	4.0	3.5	4.5	4.6	6.9	6.2	7.5	7.5
Lumber and timber basic products	9.1	8.8	6.0	5.2	8.2	8.0	5.6	4.6	11.3	10.5	7.2	6.9
Furniture and finished lumber products	8.0	7.2	8.1	7.4	6.8	6.2	7.1	6.5	10.3	9.8	8.7	10.1
Stone, clay, and glass products	5.3	5.8	6.1	5.8	4.1	4.4	4.8	4.9	7.6	8.4	8.3	7.9
Textile-mill products	6.0	5.4	6.5	6.0	5.1	4.4	5.9	5.4	6.6	6.6	6.4	6.6
Apparel and other finished textile products	4.0	3.5	7.0	5.4	3.6	2.8	6.6	5.0	4.8	5.0	6.7	7.0
Leather and leather products	4.5	4.2	6.8	5.7	3.6	3.4	6.3	4.9	4.5	4.2	6.5	6.6
Food and kindred products	6.6	8.8	9.8	10.9	3.5	3.7	6.6	6.7	13.7	5.9	14.0	7.1
Tobacco manufactures	5.8	5.2	6.2	6.8	4.3	4.0	5.3	6.3	7.4	6.8	9.6	8.2
Paper and allied products	5.2	5.0	7.3	7.2	4.3	4.1	6.4	6.4	6.2	6.9	7.8	9.2
Chemicals and allied products	3.1	2.9	4.6	4.6	2.4	2.1	3.8	3.7	4.7	4.6	5.4	5.6
Products of petroleum and coal	1.7	1.8	6.0	4.9	1.2	1.1	3.4	3.3	2.7	2.9	3.0	3.4
Rubber products	4.2	3.8	5.9	5.4	3.5	3.1	5.4	4.8	6.0	5.1	6.5	6.2
Miscellaneous industries	3.7	3.5	5.2	5.3	2.5	2.3	4.0	4.0	5.3	4.7	6.4	6.4

¹ These figures are based on a slightly smaller sample than that for all employees, inasmuch as some firms do not report separate data for women.

² Preliminary figures.

Trends of Earnings and Hours

Summary of Earnings and Hours Data for July 1946

PRELIMINARY estimates for August 1946 indicate a further rise in average hourly earnings to \$1.11 per hour. A rise in the average workweek resulted in an increase in average weekly earnings of about \$1.50 to \$44.90. Comparable July figures were \$1.09 per hour and \$43.35 per week. Preliminary figures for August are given below:

	<i>Weekly earnings</i>	<i>Weekly hours</i>	<i>Hourly earnings</i>
All manufacturing-----	\$44.90	40.4	\$1.11
Durable-----	47.84	40.4	1.18
Nondurable-----	41.90	40.4	1.04

Final figures for July reveal that both durable and nondurable goods components reported higher hourly earnings in July, as increases occurred over the month in 18 of the 20 major industry groups. Only the apparel group showed a decrease, while hourly earnings in non-ferrous metals averaged the same as in June.

Average hours worked in all manufacturing dropped from 40.0 in June to 39.6 in July, reflecting some vacations without pay as well as an extended Fourth of July holiday in some plants. Declines were reported in 16 of the industry groups. The automobile and food industries were notable exceptions.

Despite the somewhat shorter workweek, weekly earnings in July averaged about the same as in June in all manufacturing, and in the durable and nondurable goods components. In the durable goods industries, where earnings averaged \$46.15, earnings in 2 groups were still less than \$40. The average weekly earnings in lumber were \$35.09, and in furniture \$38.48.

In the nondurable goods component, where earnings averaged \$40.49 weekly, 4 out of the 11 industry groups averaged less than \$40, and in 3 of these earnings were below \$35. Despite the relatively low level of earnings in these 4 groups—leather, tobacco, textiles, and apparel—earnings were from 3 to 12 percent higher than a year ago.

Earnings and Hours in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries, July 1946

MANUFACTURING

Industry group and industry	Average weekly earnings ¹			Average weekly hours ¹			Average hourly earnings ¹		
	July 1946	June 1946	May 1946	July 1946	June 1946	May 1946	July 1946	June 1946	May 1946
	\$	\$	\$	hrs.	hrs.	hrs.	Cents	Cents	Cents
All manufacturing	\$43.35	\$43.30	\$42.51	39.6	40.0	39.7	109.3	108.4	107.1
Durable goods	46.15	46.31	45.10	39.2	39.8	39.3	117.7	116.4	114.7
Nondurable goods	40.49	40.20	39.93	40.1	40.2	40.1	101.0	100.3	99.6
<i>Durable goods</i>									
Iron and steel and their products	46.57	46.56	45.74	38.4	38.8	38.4	121.2	120.2	119.0
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	47.85	46.76	46.16	36.4	36.0	35.8	130.8	129.7	129.0
Gray-iron and semisteel castings	48.53	50.01	48.68	40.4	41.8	41.4	120.3	119.8	117.8
Malleable-iron castings	50.01	48.36	45.18	40.7	39.9	37.7	123.5	121.1	119.9
Steel castings	46.35	48.29	48.18	36.7	38.4	38.7	126.3	125.8	124.4
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	41.16	41.11	39.76	39.7	39.7	39.8	103.6	103.6	99.8
Tin cans and other tinware	43.50	42.43	39.25	40.9	40.2	37.6	106.4	105.4	104.6
Wirework	49.61	47.20	44.55	41.9	41.2	39.2	118.3	114.4	113.8
Cutlery and edge tools ²	43.63	44.92	44.79	42.2	43.3	43.8	103.0	103.4	102.2
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	46.16	46.07	45.57	42.7	43.2	43.1	107.7	106.8	105.7
Hardware	43.11	42.54	42.51	41.2	41.3	41.6	104.3	102.6	102.1
Plumbers' supplies	43.98	44.24	44.34	39.0	39.9	40.7	112.8	110.8	108.9
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	44.68	45.56	43.93	39.6	40.3	39.8	112.9	113.1	110.6
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	46.41	46.41	47.12	39.6	39.5	40.4	116.7	117.5	116.6
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	43.15	44.19	43.53	38.7	39.8	40.0	111.4	111.0	108.8
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork ³	46.38	46.59	46.83	39.3	39.8	40.3	118.5	117.7	116.8
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim	51.74	49.46	47.09	44.8	45.2	43.9	117.2	110.9	108.8
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	41.59	44.29	41.20	36.6	39.2	36.9	113.0	112.6	111.0
Forgings, iron and steel ⁴	48.77	51.24	50.11	37.1	39.2	38.4	131.4	130.9	130.6
Screw-machine products and wood screws	48.89	48.74	47.48	41.6	41.8	41.7	116.8	116.7	113.8
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	41.12	42.70	43.47	35.8	38.1	38.6	115.0	112.4	112.8
Firearms	49.75	51.53	50.54	40.4	41.6	41.4	123.0	124.0	122.2
Electrical machinery	45.38	45.67	43.99	39.3	39.8	38.9	115.4	114.8	113.1
Electrical equipment	46.01	46.15	45.49	38.8	39.3	39.3	118.4	117.3	115.8
Radios and phonographs	40.62	40.05	38.94	39.1	38.7	37.9	103.3	102.7	102.8
Communication equipment	47.72	49.37	43.60	41.0	42.2	38.5	116.4	117.1	113.2
Machinery, except electrical	49.92	50.05	48.32	40.4	40.9	40.1	123.5	122.3	120.4
Machinery and machine-shop products	49.58	49.70	47.86	40.8	41.2	40.4	121.6	120.2	118.0
Engines and turbines	52.77	52.43	51.42	40.3	40.0	40.1	131.2	132.0	128.2
Tractors	49.73	50.58	42.68	37.9	39.1	34.4	131.1	120.3	124.2
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	48.02	47.77	43.51	39.7	39.6	36.8	121.5	121.0	118.3
Machine tools	52.44	53.86	52.01	41.3	42.2	41.6	126.9	127.7	125.1
Machine-tool accessories	52.09	54.00	53.16	40.0	41.4	40.6	130.5	130.9	131.3
Textile machinery	47.42	46.99	48.32	41.4	41.9	43.3	114.4	112.3	111.6
Typewriters	47.13	44.78	45.33	42.0	42.1	42.7	113.5	107.4	107.4
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	56.29	56.00	55.03	41.9	42.0	41.4	134.9	133.8	133.3
Washing machines, wringers and driers, domestic	44.99	43.81	38.37	40.7	40.2	37.2	110.5	109.0	103.3
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	49.58	50.40	49.48	43.1	43.6	43.6	115.6	116.5	115.1
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment	46.54	46.64	47.89	38.3	38.3	39.4	121.7	121.6	121.7
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	53.46	53.33	52.09	39.2	39.5	39.1	136.5	135.0	133.3
Locomotives	59.21	58.91	55.96	40.5	40.5	38.7	146.2	145.6	144.6
Cars, electric and steam-railroad	48.24	49.17	47.44	39.4	40.8	39.7	122.2	120.5	119.6
Aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines	53.03	52.55	51.63	40.0	40.4	40.7	132.4	130.2	126.8
Aircraft engines	54.49	55.91	55.26	40.6	41.6	41.3	134.6	134.3	133.9
Shipbuilding and boatbuilding	54.36	54.00	52.79	38.1	38.1	37.6	143.6	141.7	140.3
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	45.70	47.05	46.42	38.8	39.8	39.6	118.0	118.2	117.3
Automobiles	51.29	49.45	48.05	37.8	36.7	36.3	135.6	134.8	132.5

See footnotes at end of table.

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Earnings and Hours in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries, July 1946—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry group and industry	Average weekly earnings ¹			Average weekly hours ¹			Average hourly earnings ¹		
	July 1946	June 1946	May 1946	July 1946	June 1946	May 1946	July 1946	June 1946	May 1946
Durable goods—Continued									
Nonferrous metals and their products	\$46.75	\$47.73	\$47.18	40.1	41.9	41.1	Cents	Cents	Cents
Smelting and refining, primary, of non-ferrous metals	48.67	47.77	46.25	40.4	40.2	40.0	116.6	116.7	114.9
Alloying and rolling and drawing of non-ferrous metals, except aluminum	50.17	52.58	51.24	40.2	41.6	41.0	124.7	126.8	125.1
Clocks and watches	40.44	40.70	40.97	39.9	40.3	41.2	101.3	101.1	99.5
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	44.29	47.05	47.40	41.6	43.4	43.6	106.7	108.4	108.1
Silverware and plated ware	50.00	51.42	51.31	43.7	44.8	45.2	114.6	114.8	113.6
Lighting equipment	44.53	45.12	44.59	38.2	39.2	39.6	116.8	115.0	112.6
Aluminum manufactures ²	45.67	46.14	46.86	39.1	39.6	40.3	116.8	116.7	116.4
Lumber and timber basic products	35.09	37.62	36.01	38.6	41.5	40.9	90.9	90.8	88.0
Sawmills and logging camps	33.99	36.56	34.71	38.2	41.1	40.4	89.1	88.8	86.0
Planing and plywood mills	38.71	41.11	40.27	40.0	42.5	42.6	96.5	96.8	94.4
Furniture and finished lumber products	38.48	38.87	37.88	41.0	41.8	41.3	93.9	93.0	91.7
Furniture	38.80	39.48	38.87	40.6	41.5	41.3	96.0	95.3	94.3
Caskets and other morticians' goods	40.30	42.07	40.95	41.7	43.1	42.4	97.4	97.9	96.3
Wood preserving	36.33	35.88	33.73	41.2	41.7	39.7	87.5	85.6	85.0
Stone, clay, and glass products	41.77	41.95	41.00	39.5	40.4	40.2	105.7	103.9	101.9
Glass and glassware	41.98	42.31	42.29	38.1	38.7	39.0	109.8	108.5	108.1
Glass products made from purchased glass	37.00	37.83	38.55	40.6	41.1	43.4	89.2	90.6	86.6
Cement	41.62	43.05	43.67	41.6	41.3	42.1	107.2	104.4	103.7
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	39.44	39.05	36.79	39.8	40.0	38.5	99.1	97.9	95.5
Pottery and related products	38.79	40.64	37.94	36.4	39.5	39.7	105.9	103.4	96.6
Gypsum	43.82	48.08	45.41	42.8	47.3	45.8	105.4	101.7	99.2
Lime	42.17	42.06	40.28	44.5	45.2	44.7	94.2	91.6	89.5
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	42.40	42.72	43.47	41.9	42.4	42.9	101.1	100.4	101.3
Abrasives	47.02	47.12	45.11	39.9	40.3	39.3	117.9	116.4	114.8
Asbestos products	48.94	48.42	47.42	43.1	43.0	42.8	113.6	112.6	110.7
Nondurable goods									
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufacturers	34.81	35.02	34.80	39.6	40.0	39.8	87.9	87.5	87.3
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares	31.64	31.75	31.58	39.4	39.5	39.3	80.3	80.3	80.3
Cotton smallwares	37.44	36.41	35.21	41.2	40.8	40.3	90.9	89.3	87.4
Silk and rayon goods	34.94	34.64	35.11	40.7	40.3	41.3	85.8	85.0	84.9
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	41.18	41.63	41.67	40.5	41.1	41.1	101.7	101.4	101.4
Hosiery	33.47	33.89	33.77	37.2	38.1	38.0	89.9	88.9	88.8
Knitted cloth	33.98	39.41	37.98	42.3	43.1	41.8	92.3	90.9	90.2
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	35.69	35.31	35.60	38.6	39.6	39.8	92.0	87.9	88.1
Knitted underwear	30.88	30.60	29.64	38.2	38.6	37.6	80.5	78.8	78.3
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	39.66	40.64	39.00	41.9	42.9	41.4	94.5	94.8	94.2
Carpets and rugs, wool	41.03	41.64	40.98	40.0	40.8	40.3	102.7	102.4	101.8
Hats, fur-felt	48.43	49.41	49.78	39.6	40.9	41.1	123.2	120.8	120.3
Jute goods, except felts ³	36.39	36.47	36.48	42.2	43.9	44.1	87.8	84.4	84.0
Cordage and twine	34.43	34.68	33.36	40.2	40.8	39.8	85.6	84.8	83.7
Apparel and other finished textile products	33.97	35.25	35.28	36.1	37.1	36.9	94.1	95.1	95.6
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified	36.19	38.18	37.68	36.3	38.1	37.6	99.2	99.9	99.7
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	27.90	28.73	28.92	36.1	37.1	37.0	76.9	77.0	77.7
Underwear and neckwear, men's ²	29.84	30.31	29.96	36.6	36.4	35.7	81.6	83.8	83.9
Work shirts	22.11	22.62	22.47	34.1	35.2	35.6	64.8	64.2	63.1
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified	43.24	44.64	45.55	35.6	36.2	36.4	118.0	119.5	121.1
Corsets and allied garments	32.83	33.76	33.10	38.2	38.5	38.4	86.2	87.9	86.4
Millinery	42.47	37.69	34.28	32.2	30.4	29.2	108.4	102.8	98.7
Handkerchiefs	26.43	27.26	27.61	34.7	36.0	36.8	76.4	75.8	75.3
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	27.37	28.45	28.21	36.2	37.3	36.7	76.5	76.6	76.9
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc.	34.12	31.94	33.76	38.2	36.5	38.3	88.9	86.8	88.1
Textile bags	30.06	32.03	31.26	38.0	39.5	39.5	79.0	81.0	79.1

See footnotes at end of table.

Earnings and Hours in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries, July 1946—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry group and industry	Average weekly earnings ¹			Average weekly hours ¹			Average hourly earnings ¹		
	July 1946	June 1946	May 1946	July 1946	June 1946	May 1946	July 1946	June 1946	May 1946
<i>Nondurable goods—Continued</i>									
Leather and leather products	\$36.50	\$37.34	\$37.35	38.3	39.3	39.6	Cents	Cents	Cents
Leather	44.07	44.51	42.92	40.1	40.6	40.2	95.4	95.0	94.2
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings ²	35.59	36.24	36.00	39.7	40.3	40.1	90.1	90.5	90.2
Boots and shoes	35.38	36.14	36.77	37.8	39.0	39.6	92.7	92.3	92.1
Leather gloves and mittens	32.71	32.53	31.46	36.6	36.6	36.0	89.3	89.3	87.8
Trunks and suitcases	37.01	38.94	38.55	37.7	39.6	40.3	98.2	97.4	95.1
Food	43.21	41.10	40.70	43.8	42.2	42.4	98.8	97.3	96.1
Slaughtering and meat packing	48.05	42.99	43.99	43.2	39.5	40.6	111.2	109.2	108.7
Butter	40.66	39.62	38.68	47.1	46.8	46.6	85.9	83.4	82.3
Condensed and evaporated milk	43.48	44.19	42.60	48.8	49.9	48.7	80.1	88.5	87.6
Ice cream	45.70	44.16	43.03	48.3	47.4	47.1	92.3	90.7	89.1
Flour	48.83	44.33	41.88	48.9	46.6	45.3	99.8	95.2	92.5
Cereal preparations	43.85	45.52	41.92	41.5	42.8	40.0	105.8	106.4	104.7
Baking	43.81	41.42	41.14	44.8	43.9	44.2	98.0	94.5	93.1
Sugar refining, cane	39.97	38.59	38.63	39.3	39.4	40.3	101.8	97.9	95.9
Sugar, beet	40.67	38.39	39.12	37.3	37.4	38.8	109.1	102.5	100.9
Confectionery	33.57	34.85	32.54	38.4	39.5	38.8	85.2	86.0	82.3
Beverages, nonalcoholic	40.52	38.73	37.47	44.7	43.6	42.6	90.2	88.3	87.0
Malt liquors	54.16	52.22	51.17	42.0	41.2	41.2	129.3	126.9	124.1
Canning and preserving	38.97	35.67	34.64	42.8	39.7	39.2	90.9	90.3	88.7
Tobacco manufactures	33.24	33.83	33.52	39.1	40.0	39.5	85.1	84.6	84.8
Cigarettes	36.66	37.78	37.86	40.1	41.4	41.2	91.5	91.2	91.9
Cigars	31.05	31.25	30.71	38.6	39.2	38.5	80.3	79.6	79.4
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff	29.45	29.86	29.15	37.1	37.8	37.4	79.4	79.0	77.9
Paper and allied products	43.10	42.76	42.10	42.8	43.1	42.9	100.6	99.3	98.3
Paper and pulp	46.02	45.34	45.20	43.8	43.7	43.8	105.2	103.8	103.0
Envelopes	41.03	41.82	40.87	42.6	43.1	42.5	95.7	96.9	96.1
Paper bags	37.11	36.54	34.86	41.4	40.9	40.3	91.0	89.7	86.8
Paper boxes	39.91	39.99	38.85	41.9	42.4	42.0	95.4	94.4	92.7
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	51.77	51.73	51.10	40.2	40.5	40.4	128.7	127.7	126.6
Newspapers and periodicals	56.72	56.08	56.07	37.9	37.9	38.1	146.1	144.9	144.3
Printing, book and job	49.75	49.64	48.77	41.5	41.6	41.4	121.0	120.1	118.6
Lithographing	51.80	53.03	51.92	41.8	43.4	43.2	124.1	122.1	120.1
Chemicals and allied products	44.65	43.96	43.31	40.6	40.5	40.7	109.9	108.5	106.4
Paints, varnishes, and colors	46.62	47.10	45.94	42.2	42.9	42.4	110.9	109.9	108.6
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	38.42	38.26	38.13	39.7	40.2	40.4	97.0	95.3	94.5
Soap	47.08	47.60	46.01	41.0	40.9	40.5	114.8	116.4	113.5
Rayon and allied products	41.08	40.09	40.43	38.6	38.3	39.4	106.5	104.7	102.5
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified	52.30	50.69	50.29	41.4	40.8	40.7	125.8	124.3	123.4
Explosives and safety fuses	47.96	48.53	46.71	38.9	39.1	38.8	123.3	124.2	120.5
Ammunition, small-arms	42.65	42.10	40.67	38.6	37.7	37.2	110.6	111.5	109.4
Cottonseed oil	29.65	29.43	29.78	46.7	45.8	47.5	63.6	64.3	62.7
Fertilizers	34.20	32.58	31.74	42.8	41.7	41.7	79.9	78.1	76.2
Products of petroleum and coal	54.19	53.34	52.80	40.0	39.6	39.3	135.5	134.7	134.2
Petroleum refining	57.02	56.46	56.49	39.7	39.5	39.8	143.7	143.1	141.9
Coke and byproducts	46.65	43.65	40.71	38.9	37.5	34.8	119.5	116.1	116.9
Roofing materials	48.23	48.47	46.66	44.5	44.8	44.1	107.8	108.2	105.8
Rubber products	50.60	50.45	49.82	39.2	39.3	39.4	129.2	128.4	126.6
Rubber tires and inner tubes	56.11	54.76	54.72	38.0	37.3	37.7	147.2	146.3	144.6
Rubber boots and shoes	42.98	44.98	44.19	39.6	41.8	41.5	108.5	107.6	106.6
Rubber goods, other	44.93	45.44	44.01	40.8	41.7	41.5	110.2	109.1	106.2
Miscellaneous industries	42.39	42.93	42.08	40.5	41.2	40.9	104.8	104.2	102.8
Instruments (professional and scientific) and fire-control equipment	49.06	49.57	48.18	39.9	40.6	40.0	123.4	121.1	121.4
Pianos, organs, and parts	43.48	45.99	44.14	40.4	42.1	41.1	108.0	108.7	107.4

See footnotes at end of table.

Earnings and Hours in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries, July 1946—Continued

NONMANUFACTURING

Industry group and industry	Average weekly earnings ¹			Average weekly hours ¹			Average hourly earnings ¹		
	July 1946	June 1946	May 1946	July 1946	June 1946	May 1946	July 1946	June 1946	May 1946
Mining:							Cents	Cents	Cents
Anthracite	\$49.22	\$60.51	\$57.47	31.3	39.4	41.7	155.8	152.3	138.2
Bituminous coal ²	50.69	63.58	34.20	34.1	41.7	27.3	147.5	149.7	132.1
Metal ³ :	48.17	48.12	44.44	40.0	40.8	39.2	120.5	118.1	113.3
Iron ⁴	47.96	47.41	37.94	40.1	39.8	32.9	119.6	119.2	115.4
Copper	52.64	48.98	47.90	42.6	41.4	42.7	123.5	118.2	112.1
Lead and zinc	44.13	48.13	48.25	36.6	40.9	42.3	119.8	117.8	114.0
Quarrying and nonmetallic	45.58	45.17	42.83	44.9	45.6	44.3	100.7	99.3	96.7
Crude-petroleum production	52.45	52.25	52.41	40.3	39.5	40.7	131.3	132.3	128.7
Public utilities:									
Telephone	44.82	44.93	44.82	39.7	39.3	39.4	113.5	114.7	114.3
Telegraph ⁵	41.15	40.39	40.04	45.2	44.5	44.2	91.0	90.8	90.5
Electric light and power	51.96	52.07	51.03	41.5	40.9	41.3	125.8	127.5	123.6
Street railways and busses	54.60	52.46	51.85	48.4	49.3	49.2	109.7	105.3	104.9
Trade:									
Wholesale	48.06	47.88	47.48	41.4	41.4	41.7	115.5	114.6	113.5
Retail:	32.94	32.39	31.45	41.2	40.9	40.3	88.9	87.7	85.9
Food	40.46	39.41	37.93	42.3	41.8	40.9	92.1	90.4	88.6
General merchandise	27.90	27.35	25.97	37.5	36.9	36.0	74.2	73.4	71.8
Apparel	34.27	34.10	32.99	37.4	37.2	36.8	92.5	92.2	90.3
Furniture and housefurnishings	44.86	43.98	43.59	44.0	43.7	43.6	105.1	103.4	102.6
Automotive	47.36	47.47	46.61	46.1	46.3	46.1	105.2	104.1	103.0
Lumber and building materials	42.32	42.08	41.83	42.7	43.2	43.2	100.1	98.8	98.3
Hotels (year-round) ⁶	26.63	26.70	26.65	44.0	43.9	44.1	60.2	59.8	59.6
Power laundries	30.65	30.64	30.26	43.4	43.3	43.1	69.8	70.3	70.3
Cleaning and dyeing	35.92	36.29	35.50	43.2	43.8	42.9	83.4	83.4	83.1
Brokerage	64.04	67.39	68.77	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)
Insurance	50.76	51.51	51.27	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)

¹ These figures are based on reports from cooperating establishments covering both full- and part-time employees who worked during any part of one pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month. As not all reporting firms furnish man-hour data, average hours and average hourly earnings for individual industries are based on a slightly smaller sample than are weekly earnings. For manufacturing, mining, power laundries, and cleaning and dyeing industries, the data relate to production workers only. For the remaining industries the data relate to all employees except high-paid executives and officials. Data for the current and immediately preceding months are subject to revision.

² New series beginning April 1946; not comparable with previously published data. New April data are \$43.21, 43.7 hours, and 98.8 cents. Comparable March data are \$44.25, 45.0 hours, and 98.3 cents.

³ Revisions have been made as follows in the data for earlier months:

Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork—April 1946 to 41.1 hours.

Forgings, iron and steel.—February through April 1946 to \$48.34, \$48.95, and \$52.18; 123.2, 125.3, and 129.7 cents.

Aluminum manufactures.—March 1946 to \$46.92.

Jute goods, except felts.—April 1946 to \$36.46; not comparable with previously published data. Comparable March data are \$36.20.

Underwear and neckwear, men's.—April 1946 to \$29.68 and 83.1 cents.

Boot and shoe cut stock and findings.—April 1946 to 89.2 cents; not comparable with previously published data. Comparable March data are 88.3 cents.

Bituminous coal.—April 1946 to \$30.15 and 26.4 hours.

Metal mining.—February through April 1946 to \$38.99, \$44.12, and \$45.93; 36.8, 41.0, and 42.0 hours.

Iron mining.—March and April 1946 to \$37.13 and \$43.10; 33.6 and 38.3 hours; March to 110.6 cents.

⁴ Excludes messengers, and approximately 6,000 employees of general and divisional headquarters, and of cable companies.

⁵ Cash payments only; additional value of board, room, and tips, not included.

⁶ Not available.

Trend of Factory Earnings, 1939 to July 1946

THE published average earnings of factory workers are summarized in the accompanying table for selected months from January 1939 to June 1946.¹ The earnings shown in this table are on a gross basis (i. e., before deductions for social security, income and victory taxes, bond purchases, etc.).

Weekly earnings in all manufacturing averaged \$43.35 in July 1946—86.9 percent above the average in January 1939, 62.7 percent above January 1941, and 11.5 percent above October 1942. Weekly pay for July 1946 dropped 4.6 percent below that of July 1945, as the result of reductions in working hours. However the average earnings of factory workers were still higher than before the war, as a result of such wartime factors as changing composition of the labor force within plants, shifts in the distribution of workers among plants and among industries, as well as wage-rate increases.

Gross hourly earning in all manufacturing averaged 109.3 cents in July 1946—72.9 percent above the average in January 1939, 60.0 percent above January 1941, and 22.4 percent above October 1942.

Straight-time average hourly earnings, as shown in columns 7 to 9, are weighted by man-hours of employment in the major divisions of manufacturing for January 1941. These earnings are estimated to exclude premium pay at time and a half for work in excess of 40 hours. However, the effect of extra pay for work on supplementary shifts and on holidays is included. For all manufacturing, the straight-time average in July 1946 was 106.7 cents per hour; this was 66.5 percent higher than in January 1939, 60.7 percent above January 1941, and 32.2 percent above October 1942.

¹ Compare Trends in Factory Wages, 1939-43, in Monthly Labor Review, November 1943 (p. 860), especially table 4 (p. 879). For detailed data regarding weekly earnings, see preceding table.

M
1939: Jan
1940: Jan
1941: Jan
1942: Jan
July
Oct
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1943: Jan
April
July
Oct
Dec
1944: Jan
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July
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1945: Jan
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1946: Jan
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Earnings of Factory Workers in Selected Months, 1939 to July 1946

Month and year	Average weekly earnings			Average hourly earnings			Estimated straight-time average hourly earnings ¹ weighted by January 1941 employment		
	All manufacturing	Durable goods	Non-durable goods	All manufacturing	Durable goods	Non-durable goods	All manufacturing	Durable goods	Non-durable goods
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
1939: January.....	\$23.19	\$25.33	\$21.57	\$0.632	\$0.696	\$0.583	\$0.641	\$0.702	\$0.575
1940: January.....	24.56	27.39	22.01	.655	.717	.598	.652	.708	.589
1941: January.....	26.64	30.48	22.75	.683	.749	.610	.664	.722	.601
1942: January.....	33.40	38.98	26.97	.801	.890	.688	.751	.826	.668
July.....	36.43	42.51	28.94	.856	.949	.725	.783	.863	.696
October.....	38.89	45.31	30.66	.893	.900	.751	.807	.888	.718
1943: January.....	40.62	46.68	32.10	.919	1.017	.768	.819	.905	.726
April.....	42.48	48.67	33.58	.944	1.040	.790	.833	.916	.742
July.....	42.76	48.76	34.01	.963	1.060	.806	.850	.939	.753
October.....	44.86	51.26	35.18	.988	1.086	.824	.863	.950	.768
December.....	44.58	50.50	35.61	.995	1.093	.832	.873	.962	.775
1944: January.....	45.29	51.21	36.03	1.002	1.099	.838	.877	.965	.780
April.....	45.55	51.67	36.16	1.013	1.110	.850	.889	.976	.794
July.....	45.43	51.07	37.05	1.018	1.116	.862	.901	.993	.802
October.....	46.94	53.18	37.97	1.031	1.129	.878	.908	.991	.817
December.....	47.44	53.68	38.39	1.040	1.140	.883	.912	.997	.820
1945: January.....	47.50	53.54	38.66	1.046	1.144	.891	.920	1.005	.827
April.....	47.12	52.90	38.80	1.044	1.138	.899	.925	1.007	.836
July.....	45.45	50.66	38.59	1.033	1.127	.902	.933	1.017	.842
October.....	40.97	44.23	37.76	.985	1.063	.909	.942	1.014	.863
December.....	41.21	44.08	38.52	.994	1.066	.927	.957	1.028	.880
1946: January.....	41.15	43.67	38.75	1.004	1.070	.941	.970	1.037	.895
April.....	42.88	45.71	40.13	1.058	1.131	.988	1.027	1.102	.946
May.....	42.51	45.10	39.93	1.071	1.147	.996	1.047	1.127	.959
June ²	43.30	46.31	40.29	1.084	1.164	1.003	1.057	1.142	.965
July ²	43.35	46.15	40.49	1.093	1.177	1.010	1.067	1.154	.971

¹ The method of estimating straight-time average hourly earnings makes no allowance for special rates of pay for work done on major holidays. Estimates for the months of January, July, September, and November, therefore, may not be precisely comparable with those for the other months, in which important holidays are seldom included in the pay periods for which manufacturing establishments report to the Bureau. This characteristic of the data does not appear to invalidate the comparability of the figures for January 1941 with those for the preceding and following months.

² Preliminary.

Recent Publications of Labor Interest

October 1946

Economic and Social Problems of the South

All these people: The Nation's human resources in the South. By Rupert B. Vance. Chapel Hill, University of North Carolina Press, 1945. 503 pp., bibliography, charts, maps. \$5.

Discusses the high birth rate, low income, migration to other regions, and questions of policy for conserving and developing the South's population resources. Extensive statistical comparisons are made as to economic and social conditions in the United States and the Southeast.

A brief summary of this study has been published in pamphlet form by the Southern Regional Council (Atlanta, Ga.) under the title "Wanted: The South's future for the Nation" (New South, Vol. 1, No. 3, March 1946, 25 cents).

Farewell, my lovely magnolias. By J. H. Marion, Jr. (In Yale Review, Vol. XXXV, No. 3, New Haven, Conn., spring 1946, pp. 416-430. \$1.)

The subject of this article is the loss from the South of men and women of first-rate ability who are needed to assist in the social and industrial upbuilding of that region. To keep them, the author states, speaking as a southerner himself, "we must allow them ample freedom for the kind of thought, speech, and action which will keep blowing through our southern life the cleansing and ventilating winds of new ideas and dissenting opinions."

Exit King Cotton. By Peter F. Drucker. (In Harper's Magazine, New York, May 1946, pp. 473-480. 40 cents.)

The shift of cotton raising away from the "Deep South", in the trend to mechanization, must result in hardship and suffering for millions now dependent on southern agriculture, the author believes, unless workable plans can be devised to make farming support more of the population and unless industrial employment can be rapidly increased.

The rural South—a reading guide for community leaders. Edited by H. C. Brearley and Marian Tippit. Nashville, Tenn., Southern Rural Life Council, 1946. 86 pp.

Annotated bibliography of material on economic and social subjects.

Labor organization in the South. By Kendrick Lee. Washington, Editorial Research Reports (1205 19th Street NW.), 1946. 13 pp. (Vol. 1, 1946, No. 21.) \$1.

Brief historical account of labor organization in the South, and discussion of the status of unionization in that area, at the beginning of the present organizational drives by the American Federation of Labor and the Congress of Industrial Organizations, and of the objectives of the organizational campaigns and the special problems involved.

Georgia facts in figures—a source book. By Citizens' Fact-Finding Movement of Georgia. Athens, University of Georgia Press, 1946. 178 pp. \$2.

Comprehensive collection of statistical information relating to Georgia, presented in table, map, and chart form. More than 200 exhibits cover the natural and human resources of the State, agriculture, industry, commerce, wealth, education, public welfare, government, public finance, and religion. Extensive use is made of Federal Government sources, including the Bureau of the Census, Bureau of Labor Statistics, and Bureau of Agricultural Economics.

EDITORS NOTE.—Correspondence regarding the publications to which reference is made in this list should be addressed to the respective publishing agencies mentioned. Where data on prices were readily available, they have been shown with the title entries.

Farm and manufacturing wages in Virginia. By F. L. Underwood. Blacksburg, Va., Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Virginia Agricultural Experiment Station, 1945. 24 pp., charts. (Bull. No. 378.)

Milk price differentials in the Southeast. By William J. J. Smith. (In *Journal of Farm Economics*, Menasha, Wis., August 1946, pp. 742-755. \$1.25.)

Cooperative Movement

Liquidation record of Wisconsin credit unions. By Eli Shapiro. (In *Journal of Business of the University of Chicago*, April 1946, pp. 82-98. Also reprinted.)

El Banco de la Nación Argentina en la organización, fomento, y crédito a las sociedades cooperativas. Buenos Aires, [Banco de la Nación Argentina, 1945?]. 48 pp.

Gives statistics regarding capital of the various types of cooperatives in Argentina and of loans made to them by the National Bank of Argentina.

Memoria de la segunda conferencia cooperativa Bolivariana, 14-21 de diciembre de 1944, Caracas, Venezuela. Caracas, Impresores Unidos, 1946. 40 pp.

Contains a list of delegates and the resolutions of the second conference of the Bolivarian Cooperative Union, members of which are the national cooperative movements of Colombia, Ecuador, Panama, Peru, and Venezuela.

Report of the Irish Agricultural Organization Society, Ltd., for the year ending December 31, 1945. [Dublin], 1946. 89 pp. 2s. net.

Among other material, the report gives statistics of the various types of Irish cooperatives for 1944.

Cost of Living

Report of the President's Committee on the Cost of Living. Washington, U. S. Office of Economic Stabilization, 1945. 423 pp., charts. 60 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Combines in convenient form the report of the Committee, correspondence pertinent to the report, and various other documents bearing on the adequacy of methods used by the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics in the construction of the consumers' price index (formerly called cost-of-living index).

Current living costs as related to standards of public assistance in Pennsylvania, December 1945. Harrisburg, Department of Public Assistance, 1946. 31 pp.; mimeographed.

Living and office-operating costs in Brazil. By Gertrude E. Heare. Washington, U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, August 1946. 11 pp., bibliography. (International reference service, Vol. 3, No. 27.) 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Education and Training

Digest of annual reports of State boards for vocational education to the U. S. Office of Education, Vocational Division, fiscal year ended June 30, 1945. Washington, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, 1946. 79 pp., charts.

Vocational education in the years ahead. Washington, Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, 1945. 329 pp., bibliography, charts. (Vocational division bull. No. 234, general series No. 7.) 50 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Report of a committee to study postwar problems in vocational education, appointed by the U. S. Commissioner of Education. The first part is devoted to general considerations and the second, to reports for various fields—agriculture, business, homemaking, trade and industry, and public service.

Standards and organization for apprenticeship in the stained glass industry. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Apprentice-Training Service, 1946. 11 pp. Free.

Canadian vocational training—annual report for 1945-46. Ottawa, Department of Labor, 1946. 24 pp. (Supplement to *Labor Gazette*, June 1946.)

The various types of training given under the Canadian Vocational Training Coordination Act of 1942 are reviewed in the report, but the greater part of it is devoted to training of veterans.

Guaranteed Wage

The guaranteed minimum weekly wage. New York, State Department of Labor, Division of Industrial Relations, Women in Industry, and Minimum Wage, 1946. 11 pp.; processed.

Points out that the only guaranteed wage standards at present applicable to an entire industry within a State are the guaranteed weekly wages established under State minimum-wage laws. The guaranteed minimum weekly wage is declared to be "an important step towards the guaranteed annual wage."

Management's approach to the annual wage. By Joseph L. Snider. (In Harvard Business Review, Vol. XXIV, No. 3, Boston, spring 1946, pp. 326-338, \$1.50.)

The author's preliminary conclusions based on talks and correspondence with a large number of industrial leaders about their experiences and thinking in connection with the annual wage. He predicts that "the annual wage will be a battle cry of labor and a national issue in the coming generation just as the eight-hour day was in the last."

Security and the annual wage. By Emory S. Bogardus. (In Sociology and Social Research, Los Angeles, March-April 1946, pp. 303-308. 60 cents.)

Steadying the worker's income. By Edwin E. Witte. (In Harvard Business Review, Vol. XXIV, No. 3, Boston, spring 1946, pp. 306-325. \$1.50.)

Reviews the interest in and development of the various forms which proposals for steadyng the workers' income have taken, and discusses some of the practical problems to be considered in connection with income-assurance plans.

Housing

Effect of wartime housing shortages on home ownership. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1946. 12 pp. (Serial No. R. 1840; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, April 1946, with additional data.) Free.

[Federal] *Home Owners' Loan Acts and Housing Acts.* Compiled by Elmer A. Lewis. 170 pp. 20 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Public war housing: The job of re-use and disposal. Washington, U. S. National Housing Agency, Federal Public Housing Authority, 1946. 12 pp.; processed.

What the housing is and how it will be disposed of when surplus to veterans' and reconversion needs.

Indianapolis finds its answer to urban blight. By Otto K. Jensen. (In Federal Home Loan Bank Review, Federal Home Loan Bank Administration, Washington, August 1946, pp. 329-331, 337, illus. 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.)

Description of the pay-as-you-go plan of Indianapolis for redevelopment of blighted areas in that city.

The pattern of expenditures for nonfarm residential repair and maintenance. By Frieda J. Stephan and J. Joseph W. Palmer. Washington, U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, 1946. 67 pp., charts, illus. (Economic series No. 55.) 20 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

The importance of residential repair and maintenance in the national economy is only beginning to be recognized, according to this report. Repairs are less affected by changes in economic conditions than is new construction and averaged two-thirds as much in outlay for new homes in the 16-year period ending with 1944.

Industrial Accidents and Accident Prevention

Accident prevention. By D. B. Armstrong, M.D., and W. Graham Cole. (In American Journal of Public Health, New York, August 1946, pp. 869-874. 50 cents.)

Activities conducted in several States for the prevention of home accidents are described. According to the authors, such accidents rank ninth as a cause of death, and are largely responsible for off-the-job accidents to employed persons, which are more numerous than accidents occurring at work.

Accidents from falls of roof and coal in bituminous-coal mines. Accidents from hoisting and haulage in bituminous-coal mines. Washington, U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Mines, 1945 and 1946. 114 and 59 pp., respectively, illus. (Miners' circulars Nos. 48 and 49; Coal-mine accident-prevention course, sections 2 and 3.) 25 and 20 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Safe practices in mine hoisting. By D. Harrington and J. H. East, Jr. Washington, U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Mines, 1946. 55 pp., bibliography, illus. (Miners' circular No. 61.) 15 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Active list of permissible explosives and blasting devices approved previous to December 31, 1945. By J. E. Tiffany and Z. C. Gaugler. Washington, U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Mines, 1946. 20 pp.; mimeographed. (Report of investigations, No. 3910.)

Protection of portable grinding machines. By M. Helfenstein. (In Industrial Safety Survey, International Labor Office, Montreal, April-June 1946, pp. 41-45, diagrams, illus. 50 cents. Distributed in United States by Washington Branch of I. L. O.) Describes protective hoods devised by the Swiss Accident Insurance Institute.

State workmen's compensation laws as of June 1, 1946. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, 1946. 45 pp. (Bull. No. 78.) Free.

Workmen's compensation in Canada—a comparison of provincial laws. Ottawa, Department of Labor, August 1946. 33 pp.; mimeographed.

Industriarbeidertrygden, 1940-42. Oslo, Rikstrygdeverket, 1946. 44*, 123 pp., charts. (Norges offisielle statistikk, X, 104.) Kr. 1.50, H. Åschehoug & Co., Oslo.

Statistical report on accident insurance in Norway, including data on man-days lost per accident and per industry. French translations of the table of contents and table heads, and general remarks in French, are given.

Industrial Hygiene

Bibliography of Bureau of Mines publications dealing with health and safety in the mineral and allied industries. By Sara J. Davenport. Washington, U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Mines, 1946. 190 pp.; mimeographed.

Chemicals that crack oil. By Roy G. Benson. (In National Safety News, Chicago, August 1946, pp. 24, 25, et seq., bibliography, illus. 60 cents to nonmembers of National Safety Council.)

Reviews the newer chemical processes and reagents used in petroleum refining, notes their hazards for the workers, and prescribes safeguards against dangerous exposure.

Ethyl ether (diethyl oxide). (In National Safety News, Chicago, July 1946, pp. 39, 40, et seq., bibliography; Industrial data sheet No. D—Chem. 7 (revised), available as a reprint.)

Covers uses, hazards, personal protective equipment, precautions for handling, symptoms of poisoning, and other phases.

Fire fighters' occupational diseases. By Max H. Skolnick, M.D., and George J. Richardson. Washington, International Association of Fire Fighters, 1945. 107 pp., bibliography. \$1.

Presentation of medical case reports, including discussion of work hazards involved and of compensation awards called for by the medical status.

Tuberculosis, industrial nursing, and mass radiography. By Julie E. Miale. New York, National Tuberculosis Association, 1945. 67 pp., bibliography, forms, plans. 50 cents.

Manual for industrial nurses on promotion, practice, and follow-up of mass X-ray surveys in industry.

Industrial Relations

Labor policy and labor relations. (In Proceedings of Academy of Political Science, Vol. XXII, No. 1, New York, May 1946, pp. 1-107. \$2.50.)

Subjects of the papers and discussions at the April 1946 meeting of the Academy, reproduced in this volume, included wage policies, wages and prices, wages and economic efficiency, various phases of the settlement of labor disputes, and international economic relations.

Mutual survival, the goal of unions and management. By E. Wight Bakke. New Haven, Yale University, Labor and Management Center, 1946. 82 pp. \$1.

First of a series of "interim" reports on the theory of human behavior as it relates to labor-management relations. It is an analytical, factual report based on interviews with 60 leading representatives of management and organized labor in 9 major centers of industrial activity in the East and Middle West.

Postwar labor relations. (In Papers and proceedings of 58th annual meeting of American Economic Association, Cleveland, Ohio, January 24-27, 1946, American Economic Review, Vol. XXXVI, No. 2, Menasha, Wis., May 1946, pp. 336-383.)

Three papers—Public policy in labor relations, Collective bargaining in the public service, Democracy in trade unions—and discussion.

Rights of supervisory employees to collective bargaining under the National Labor Relations Act. (In Yale Law Journal, New Haven, Conn., June 1946, pp. 754-777.)

Reviews individual cases affecting the unionization-of-foremen issue.

Wages under national and regional collective bargaining—experience in seven industries. By Richard A. Lester and Edward A. Robie. Princeton, N. J., Princeton University, Industrial Relations Section, 1946. 103 pp., bibliography. (Research report series, No. 73.) \$1.50.

Seven manufacturing industries with extensive experience in national or regional collective bargaining were chosen for study, including pressed and blown glassware, pottery, stove, full-fashioned hosiery, silk and rayon dyeing and finishing, flat glass, and West Coast pulp and paper. The conclusions are in general favorable to national and regional collective bargaining.

Your stake in collective bargaining. By T. R. Caškadon and S. T. Williamson. New York, Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 1946. 32 pp. (Public affairs pamphlet No. 117.) 10 cents.

Based largely on "Trends in collective bargaining," by S. T. Williamson and Herbert Harris, published by Twentieth Century Fund, New York, 1945.

International Labor Organization

Constitution and rules [of International Labor Organization]. Montreal, International Labor Office, 1946. 114 pp. (In English and French.) 50 cents. Distributed in United States by Washington Branch of I. L. O.

The International Labor Organization and the United Nations. By Ernest S. Hediger. (In Foreign Policy Reports, New York, June 1, 1946, pp. 70-79. 25 cents.)

Resolutions adopted by the third conference of the American states members of the International Labor Organization (Mexico City, April 1946). Montreal, International Labor Office, 1946. 37 pp. Free. Distributed in United States by Washington Branch of I. L. O.

Labor Organizations and Their Activities

History of the National Federation of Post Office Clerks. By Karl Baarslag. Washington, National Federation of Post Office Clerks, 1945. 216 pp., illus. \$1.50.

The growth of the union is described from its organization in 1900 through 1941. Particular attention is given to the role exerted by Congress and the Post Office Department in moulding the activities of the union, which now has a membership of approximately 50,000.

Histoire du syndicalisme français. By Robert Bothereau. Paris, Presses Universitaires de France, 1945. 128 pp. (Que sais-je?—No. 180.)

A description of French trade-unionism by a secretary of the General Confederation of Labor, with a section on the principal decisions of the organization up to 1938 and some detail on the wartime French and international trade-union movement.

All-India Seafarers' Federation, its formation and constitution. Bombay, Servants of India Society, 1946. 28 pp.

The All-India Seafarers' Federation, consisting of six unions with a membership of 66,000, was formed at the first session of the All-India Seafarers' Conference at Calcutta in April 1946. The pamphlet listed includes resolutions adopted by the Conference, as well as the constitution and rules of the Federation and resolutions adopted at the first meeting of its executive board.

Histadrut. New York, National Labor Committee for Palestine, [1946?]. 32 pp., illus.

Review of the history and accomplishments of the Histadrut (General Federation of Jewish Workers in Palestine), which, in addition to detailing the accomplishments of the organization in the labor field, contains data on its social-aid institutions, its influence on the social structure, and its work in the field of cooperatives and for the furtherance of cooperation between Jewish and Arab workers, in Palestine.

Forty-ninth annual report of the Scottish Trades Union Congress, 1946, including report of organization of women committee and report of youth advisory council. Glasgow, Scottish Trades Union Congress, 1946. 139 pp. 1s. net.

Medical Care

Medical care in Maryland. By Robert H. Riley, M.D. (In American Journal of Public Health, New York, August 1946, pp. 908-911. 50 cents.)

The new State-wide public program for care of the indigent and medically needy is outlined. The fee schedule for professional services is given.

Manitoba health plan. By F. W. Jackson, M.D. (In American Journal of Public Health, New York, August 1946, pp. 837-841. 50 cents.)

Recent legislation of the Province of Manitoba, Canada, for improving rural health on an area basis is described. Prime objectives are disease prevention, diagnostic facilities, general practitioner services, and adequate hospitalization. The plan fits in with the Dominion Government's proposal for health insurance.

Report of the Health Survey and Development Committee, [India]. Delhi, Manager of Publications, 1946. 4 vols., 228, 532, 351, 90 pp.

Comprehensive report on the state of public health and on administrative activities relating to health in British India, with suggested short-term and long-term programs for health protection. Volume 4 is a summary of the preceding volumes. Health problems of industrial workers are covered in the report and the recommendations.

Occupations

Careers in aviation. By Samuel Burger, in collaboration with Vocational Guidance Research. New York, Greenberg, 1946. 209 pp., bibliography. \$2.75.

Establishing and operating a dry cleaning business. By Paul C. Trimble. *Establishing and operating a retail shoe business.* By Edwin Hahn. *Establishing and operating a variety and general merchandise store.* By Nelson A. Miller. Washington, U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, 1946. 210, 180, 256 pp., respectively, diagrams, forms, illus. (Industrial (small business) series, Nos. 33, 34, 35.) 35, 35, 45 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Geology as a profession. *Meteorology as a profession.* Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Employment Service, National Roster of Scientific and Specialized Personnel, 1946. 19 and 17 pp., respectively, bibliographies, illus. (Vocational booklets Nos. 1 and 4.) 10 and 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Numbers 2 and 3 in this series deal, respectively, with chemistry and chemical engineering.

Population

The industrial distribution of the population of Great Britain in July 1939. By H. Frankel. (In Journal of the Royal Statistical Society, Vol. CVIII, parts III-IV, London, 1945, pp. 392-422; discussion, pp. 422-430. 20s.)

Japan: Area and population, by ken, shi, and gun [prefecture, city, and district], 1930-40 (density, sex ratio, and percent increase, adjusted to October 1, 1940, census areas). Washington, U. S. Department of State, Division of Geography and Cartography, 1945. 52 pp.; processed. (Release No. 120.)

Population and peace in the Pacific. By Warren S. Thompson. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1946. 397 pp., bibliography, maps, charts. \$3.75.

Exposition of the view that changes in population growth and social (economic) organization, which are taking place in the world, should be considered in developing a political organization that will encourage peace rather than war.

Provisional results of the general summarized population census [of Poland] on February 14, 1946. Warsaw, Chief Bureau of Statistics of the Republic of Poland, 1946. 11 pp.

Special supplement to the Statistical News of the Chief Bureau of Statistics. Preface, table heads, and certain other items are given in both Polish and English.

Septimo censo nacional de población, [Venezuela], levantado el 7 de diciembre de 1941: Tomo IV, Estados Guárico, Lara y Mérida. Caracas, Ministerio de Fomento, Dirección General de Estadística, 1945. xxxviii, 601 pp., maps, charts.

This volume, as well as those already issued for other Venezuelan States, contains tables showing distribution of the gainfully employed population, according to the national population census of December 7, 1941, classified by industry, by sex, whether native or foreign, and whether proprietors, salaried employees, or wage earners.

Productivity of Labor

Productivity and unit labor cost in the electric light and power industry, 1917-45. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1946. 4 pp.; mimeographed. Free.

Productivity and unit labor cost in the telephone and telegraph industries, 1935-45. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1946. 5 pp.; mimeographed. Free.

Social Security (General)

Relief and social security. By Lewis Meriam. Washington, Brookings Institution, 1946. 912 pp. \$5.

This study deals with the problem of providing protection against need through a universal, comprehensive, and coordinated relief and social-security system, offering minimum interference with "the American way of life." Part I describes the principal United States programs (from the 1930's on) for relief and social security. For comparative purposes, British efforts for universal coverage, comprehensiveness, and coordination, as exemplified by plans for the reorganization of the social-security systems of Great Britain and New Zealand, are examined in Part II. Major issues are discussed in Part III under three groups of problems—social, financial, and administrative. A section on the use of census data in estimating costs is appended.

Social security and related services in Michigan, their administration and financing. By Claude R. Tharp. Ann Arbor, University of Michigan, 1946. 180 pp. bibliography. (Michigan governmental studies, No. 16.) 75 cents.

The services are examined under the following heads: (1) Public assistance; (2) Welfare services for children and handicapped persons; (3) Health and medical services; (4) Social insurance. A separate chapter gives a summary and conclusions.

Ten years of social-security administration in the Southwest. (In Social Security Bulletin, Federal Security Agency, Social Security Board, Washington, May 1946, pp. 4-10. 15 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.)

Health and social welfare, 1945-46. London and New York, Todd Publishing Co., Ltd., 1946. 519 pp. 21s.; \$6.

Annual handbook of health and welfare services of Great Britain, including medical and nursing services in industry. There are signed articles on a wide variety of activities; sections on health legislation and policy, and functions of the various official and unofficial bodies in the health and social-welfare field; directories of agencies; guides to official statistics; bibliographies of books, periodicals, and films; and other pertinent information.

The first two years of social insurance in Mexico. By Wilbur J. Cohen. (In Social Security Bulletin, Federal Security Agency, Social Security Board, Washington, July 1946, pp. 22-27, bibliography, chart. 15 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.)

Unemployment Insurance

Effect of war-risk tax provisions [in State unemployment-insurance laws], 1943 and 1944. (In Employment Security Activities, Federal Security Agency, Social Security Board, Bureau of Employment Security, Washington, June 1946, pp. 29-44; processed.)

Deals with the higher wartime contributions imposed by 10 States on employers whose pay rolls expanded rapidly (especially in war production), or on new employers.

Unemployment insurance and the retraining of unemployed workers. (In Social Security Bulletin, Federal Security Agency, Social Security Board, Washington, April 1946, pp. 16-20. 15 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.)

Unemployment relief financing in the States. By Randall S. Stout. State College, Pa., Pennsylvania State College, Bureau of Business Research, 1946. 28 pp., bibliography; mimeographed. (Bull. No. 26.)

Characteristics of [unemployment-insurance] claimants and job openings [in California] in mid-December 1945. [Sacramento], Department of Employment, 1946. 28 pp., map, charts; processed.

The three largest occupational groups among claimants for unemployment insurance in the State as a whole were skilled men, semiskilled women, and unskilled women. Over a fourth of the total claimants were over 50 years of age. Data are given for the entire State and for various areas, with statistical breakdowns for both claimants and job openings.

The unemployment compensation system in Pennsylvania. Harrisburg, Pennsylvania Postwar Planning Commission, [1945?]. 23 pp.

Discusses the major aspects of the present system, and includes statistics of contributions, benefits, and reserves, 1937-September 30, 1944. Recommends liberalization of the present law as to waiting period and amount and duration of benefits, and the addition of compensation for partial unemployment.

Veterans' Affairs

The community and the veterans' emergency housing program. Washington, U. S. National Housing Agency, 1946. 25 pp., charts; processed.

General explanation of the emergency program for housing veterans. Particular stress is placed on community action.

Settlement opportunities on irrigated farms. Washington, U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Reclamation, 1946. 10 pp., map.

Describes the opportunities for settlement on projects of the Bureau of Reclamation in 17 western States. Particular emphasis is placed on veterans' preference.

Veterans' information centers: A survey of their operation and services. By John K. Gurwell. Chicago, Public Administration Service, 1945. 49 pp. (Publication No. 94.) \$1.50.

Veterans on the move: Report on transient veterans. New York, National Social Welfare Assembly, National Committee on Service to Veterans, 1946. 15 pp. 10 cents.

An attempt to define the nature of the problem of the transient veteran and its relationship to the total problem of transiency.

The veterans' program—a complete guide to its benefits, rights, and options. By Charles Hurd. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1946. 267 pp. \$2. Designed to give the essentials of the programs established for veterans and to show how they may be used.

Report of the Repatriation Commission, [Australia], for year 1944-45. Canberra, 1945. 23 pp.

Covers provisions for repatriation of returning servicemen, including passage for families of those married overseas. War, service, and seamen's pensions and medical and other forms of assistance are outlined.

Wages and Hours of Labor

Wage structure, bituminous coal mines, 1945. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1946. 96 pp.; mimeographed. (Wage structure series 2, No. 12.) Free.

One of the Bureau of Labor Statistics' Nation-wide surveys of wages and related working conditions. The studies are designed to yield data for use in collective bargaining, wage determination, and minimum-wage administration. Detailed tables in the report listed give occupational straight-time earnings per hour, hours per start, and other information, for the industry as a whole and for the various production districts. The extent of use of supplementary wage practices, as, for example, shift differentials, payment for explosives and other items, paid vacations, and insurance or pension plans, is summarized. Percentage distributions of straight-time earnings per start are shown for various occupations.

Cotton goods: Employment, hours, and earnings, by area, June 1945-December 1945. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1946. 17 pp.; mimeographed. Free.

Occupational wage relationships: Series 1, No. 2, Machine tool accessories, 1945. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1946. 14 pp., charts; processed. Free.

Union wages and hours in the printing trades, July 1, 1945. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1946. 15 pp., charts. (Bull. No. 872; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, April 1946, with additional data.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Salary rates of officials and employees in 128 Oregon cities. Eugene, University of Oregon, Bureau of Municipal Research and Service, May 1946. 16 pp.; mimeographed. (Information bull. No. 63.)

Women in Industry

The outlook for women in occupations in the medical and other health services: Trends and their effect upon the demand for women workers. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1946. 55 pp., bibliography, (Bull. No. 203, No. 12.) 15 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

This last pamphlet in a series of 12 on the outlook for women in occupations in the medical and other health services discusses trends in these fields and their effect upon the demand for women workers, and analyzes regional patterns and various aspects of age, race, and marital-status questions. Previous numbers in the series have covered the outlook for individual occupations.

Medical and health services, the Women's Bureau reports, rank third among all industries in the employment of women.

Women in aviation. By Frances W. Kerr. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1946. 10 pp.; mimeographed. Free.

Standards of employment for women. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1946. (Leaflet No. 1-1946.) Free.

The leaflet refers mainly to industrial and office workers. It outlines what good labor standards are and describes briefly how they are developed.

State labor laws for women, with wartime modifications, December 15, 1944: Part V, Explanation and appraisal. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1946. 66 pp. (Bull. No. 202-V.) 15 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Summary review of the principal labor laws in the United States governing women's hours and working conditions, and of the leading court decisions which have played an important part in the progress of such legislation.

The war and women's employment—the experience of the United Kingdom and the United States. Montreal, International Labor Office, 1946. 287 pp. (Studies and reports, new series, No. 1.) \$1.50. Distributed in United States by Washington Branch of I. L. O.)

Contains information on employment of women in industry and various other fields during and between the two World Wars, and related data. The outlook with respect to women's employment in the future is considered.

Women workers and unemployment insurance since VJ-day. By Olga S. Halsey. (In Social Security Bulletin, Federal Security Agency, Social Security Board, Washington, June 1946, pp. 3-10, charts. 15 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.)

Reviews women's employment experience before and after the surrender of Japan and shows their proportion of claims for unemployment compensation in six industrial States, July 1945-March 1946, and in each State of the United States, January-March 1946.

Labor Department reports annual minimum budget for women workers in Connecticut. (In Monthly Bulletin, Connecticut Department of Labor and Factory Inspection, Hartford, July 1946, pp. 4, 5.)

The survey, which was made in March 1946 and thus does not take into account recent increased consumer costs, indicated that a minimum wage of \$1,461 annually, or slightly over \$28 a week, was needed to support a single working woman at a standard necessary for health. This represented an increase of 56 percent over the 1938 budget.

General Reports

Labor: Child labor, women workers, employment, wages, workmen's insurance, and compensation. Washington, Government Printing Office, Superintendent of Documents, May 1946. 104 pp. (Price list 33—30th ed.)

List of U. S. Government publications on subjects specified, for sale by the Superintendent of Documents.

Condições de vida do trabalhador na agro-indústria do açúcar, [Brazil]. By Vasconcelos Torres. Rio de Janeiro, Instituto do Açúcar e do Álcool, 1945. 277 pp., charts, illus.

Housing, nutrition, and wages are the principal subjects considered in this study of living conditions of sugar workers in Brazil.

Beretning om arbejds- og fabriktilets virksomhed i aaret 1944. Copenhagen, Arbejds- og Fabriktilsynet, 1945. 166 pp., diagrams, illus.

Report concerning inspection of working conditions in Denmark in 1944 with some data for earlier years. Cites measures for the prevention of accidents and occupational diseases and notes dispensations granted for holiday work and for the employment of youth.

British labor sets its course. By Margaret Cole and others. (In Antioch Review, Vol. VI, No. 2, Yellow Springs, Ohio, summer 1946, pp. 167-234. 75 cents.)

A group of articles under this head reviews, among other matters, the economic policies of the Labor Party, with particular attention to reconversion, nationalization of key industries, trade, housing, and agriculture; the United States loan to Great Britain and its relation to freer international trade; and labor and socialist parties in the Dominions (Canada, Australia, New Zealand).

The Italian lira, 1938-45. By William D. Grampp. (In Journal of Political Economy, Chicago, August 1946, pp. 309-333. \$1.)

Study of Italy's wartime inflation, covering prices and income, quantity of money, price and fiscal policy, and price relations. Indexes of retail-food and wholesale prices and of workers' income, 1938-45, and of family income and food prices in Rome, 1940-45, are included.

The great Stalin five-year plan. Washington, Embassy of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, 1946. 56 pp., illus.

Text of the law on the plan for restoration and development of the national economy, 1946-50, with various expository articles by Soviet writers. Part III, entitled "Plan for the material and cultural advancement of the people," contains data on manpower, training of industrial personnel, housing, culture and health, and consumer goods.